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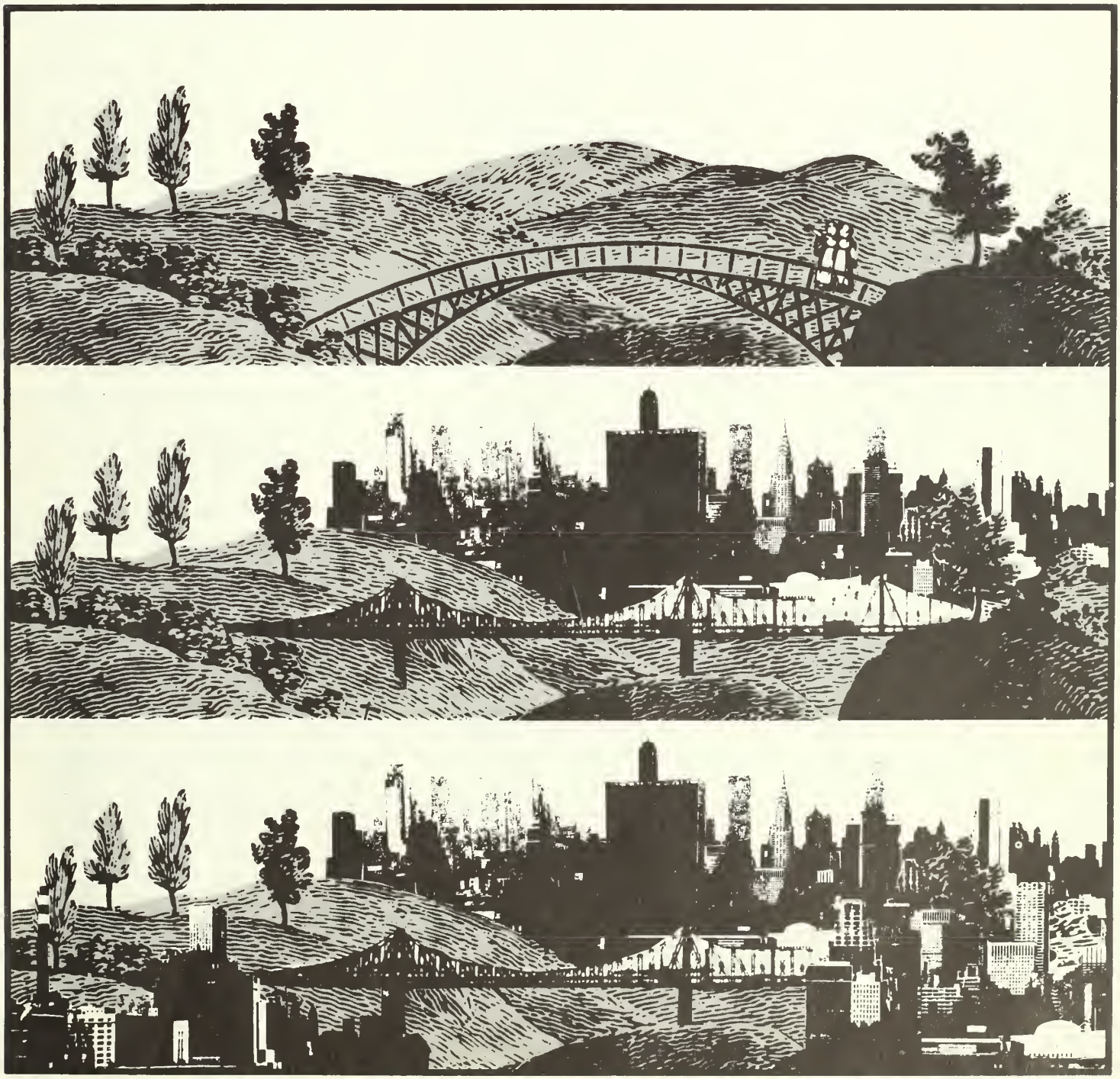

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Membership in the Park Practice Program includes a subscription to all three publications and a library of back issues arranged in binders with indices and all publications for the remainder of the calendar year.

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Urban Parks: A Professional Perspective

y William J. Whalen, Director, lational Park Service

For too long the subject of urban parks as been viewed as a threat by segments f the professional community It has parked too much bureaucratic turf rotecting, too many excuses and ationales for things that did or did not appen in the past, and too many scare tories about what might happen

It is time for myths and nisunderstandings to be set aside so that he profession can give the kind of eadership needed by the public and olicy makers.

And the myths abound.

Myth. The present interest in urban needs will rain money and support away from long-tanding conservation and outdoor recreation fforts.

Not unless we professionals let it appen. There is no reason whatever to hink that old constituencies and their gendas will go away or be less vigorous ust because new needs are being rticulated and receiving professional ttention. In fact, the new and enlarged onstituency represented gives added upport to the profession as a whole and o efforts to meet the entire range of ark and recreation needs, from the most ural to the most urban.

By many measures parks have been ow man on the financial totem pole for a ong time. One reason for this is that ome people do not see parks and park rograms as a mainline priority concern. But if a respectable share of professional drive is hitched to parks in the cities and o serving city people, the probabilities seem a whole lot higher that citizens and politicians will put parks higher on their ist of principal concerns. The new coalitions that could be created by merger of the conservation movement with urban interests could move mountains. One of the basic advantages of coalitions is that they stimulate people to do a lot more together than they can by working alone.

The beginnings of such a variety of coalitions have already happened, in large part because of the inspired leadership of the late Senator Phil Hart of Michigan, who sparked formation of a Washington-based organization of environmental and urban groups. With the potential to duplicate similar organizations at the local level, the prospects of gaining the necessary resources to do a better job in every park would look bright indeed.

At the federal level, it is in no way possible to argue that addition of the urban national parks has taken away anything from the older, more rural units of the National Park System. Since creation of the first two urban national recreation areas (Gateway and Golden Gate) in 1972, the operating budgets for Yellowstone, Great Smokies, and Grand Canyon have increased by 77, 72, and 112 percent respectively. This is the clearest evidence possible that Congress has not neglected the older parks to finance the new, though as people in and out of the Park Service know, we have not, until very recently, felt our overall resources were close to being adequate.

It is very likely the new interest in the National Park System by Members of Congress served by the new urban parks has played an important part in gaining for the *whole system* a better level of financial support. The strong support for the current Alaska park proposals by urban Congressmen is tangible evidence they do not see urban and non-urban parks as an either-or situation, but as parts of a diverse system, all of which merit support.

I doubt there will ever be "enough" money, and as a taxpayer I would have some concern if a public agency weren't operating with a tight belt. But it seems to me that all park professionals will have a better chance of getting a more reasonable share of the total financial pie when the broadest possible segment of the people is being served. Another way of putting that is to say we will have a more valid claim on a higher priority if we are doing a better job of serving *all* the public.

Myth: Urban parks are excessively expensive.

Again, at the federal level, the urban national recreation areas have been rather incredible bargains, in part because each of them involved land already in some form of public ownership None to date has been as costly to acquire as Big Thicket, Big Cypress, or Redwoods—all recent, more traditional additions to the National Park System

In operating costs-per-visitor, the urban units are less costly than most older rural parks.

The development costs associated with the urban parks will close part of the capital investment gap, and make the costs of both rural and urban parks more nearly comparable, though when measured against the number of people who can be served, the urban parks remain highly cost-effective.

At the state and local level, land acquisition programs have placed heavy emphasis on buying the least expensive land. Many jurisdictions had actual limits on the cost-per-acre they would spend on land, or operated under informal guidelines that strongly militated against land that appeared to be expensive when measured on a scale of dollars-per-acre.

This practice meant, of course, that many acquisitions were far from the cities and outside the principal transportation and development corridors. Another effect was that standards and official attitudes for judging whether a park was expensive almost always focused on the per-acre figures. Such calculations fail to take account of the use that park may receive and also fail to count the important benefits that are represented by saving a close-in amenity or outstanding remnant (maybe even just a fragment) of the natural landscape.

National Park Service

From countryside to core—park and recreation professionals must work together to conserve the green and open spaces within our urban landscapes.

To gauge how expensive urban parks are we need to think more about the benefit side of the equation and both the number of people who may benefit from it and the values represented by saving it. Measured in this way smaller parks closer in may not seem nearly so expensive.

Moreover, such calculations rarely take account of the public dollars which are expended on the infrastructure associated with developmental alternatives—roads, water and sewers, schools, fire and police protection. Such costs contain both capital investments and long term operating costs. More explicit treatment of these costs in relation to park proposals will help us better talk the language of those competing for both the land resource and public funds.

Myth: Urban parks are strictly the responsibility of towns and cities, and neither the states, counties, nor federal agencies should get involved.

The issue of "role" is one of the most difficult aspects of the urban park question, because everyone would like to think it possible to sort out simple and consistent distinctions between the things each level of government should be responsible for and what should be handled by the private sector.

Sorting out roles and trying to minimize and prevent overlaps and duplication is a necessary and worthwhile exercise, but I think it is unrealistic to think role statements and decisions will be as simple as many people would like.

Neighborhood playgrounds and community parks are the responsibility of the cities. Except when they are provided by county governments, or when a state or federal park adjoins a developed community.

Nationally significant sites are recognized as a federal responsibility. Except when a state or local agency or private institution can do the job. Central Park in New York and Mt. Vernon (VA) are outstanding examples.

Parks of state-wide significance are the responsibility of state agencies. Except when the resource crosses state boundaries, or when the scale is too much for the state to handle. Many of the country's wild and scenic rivers and Yosemite (which began as a state park), are examples.

The examples suggest the difficulty of overly simplified role statements and labels. But nevertheless it is important that we continue to keep roles in mind, even though the boundaries between them may at times appear fuzzy.

The important thing for us as professionals is to avoid role definitions being excuses for not doing something that needs to be done on the grounds that it is someone else's job, or letting entire segments of the park job fall between the cracks.

If there is some discomfort in roles not being as orderly as we'd wish, it is useful to reflect on other areas of public service—education, health services, law enforcement, or welfare. No areas of our national life stand sorted out in discrete program and policy roles. It is unrealistic for us to expect it to be true in parks and recreation.

There are, however, some guidelines that it seems to me we should be using more often to guide agency roles.

There should be more coordination between the various levels of government to identify overlaps and gaps, especially as plans are developed and long-range objectives set.

More use should be made of joint ventures and cooperative arrangements that tap the special expertise and skills of each participant. Such arrangements can not only make more effective use of people, equipment, and money, but they can also improve the quality of services available to the public. The new national cultural park in Lowell (MA), which will involve direct participation by federal, state, and local agencies, is a recent example.

There is also much that professionals can learn from each other by increased cross-assignments and informational exchange between levels of government, with the private sector, and across jurisdictional boundaries. One of the best ways to accomplish this exchange is by active joint participation in planning and management. Intergovernmental personnel exchanges can greatly enrich professional know-how.

Myth: The new urban national parks are forerunner to Park Service takeover of all urban parks.

Never! The new urban national park units are no threat whatsoever to state, regional, or local park systems. If local or state agencies can do the job and want to, there is hardly a chance that anyone would even propose National Park System status. NPS certainly wouldn't.

It is probable there will be other urban park units added to the National Park System. Two or more may be created in the present session of Congress. But I doubt the numbers will be large, particularly if more effective use is made of alternative strategies for the protection and preservation of major

urban landscapes through such devices as more rigorous use of local police powers, development controls, and land use planning

There is a companion to this myth that suggests every new urban national park strengthens the view that every city must have one.

Again, this seems most unlikely in light of local capabilities and real opportunities.

Beyond the myths, however, are some major truths about the urban park issue to which the park profession needs to give careful and innovative attention.

Item: Park opportunities for less mobile people in the cities are in short supply and often non-existent.

As documented in the recent National Urban Recreation Study, cities and suburbs alike have been badly shortchanged in park and recreation opportunities. Older parks already existing have been allowed to deteriorate and become obsolete. Many neighborhoods were built, especially after World War II, with little or no attention to open space and parks. Whole populations, the poor, handicapped, and people without cars, have little or no chance to gain park experiences now enjoyed by others.

It will not be enough to dismiss the problem as one for the cities to handle alone. Federal, state, county and regional park systems, including areas now inaccessible to city dwellers, can do much to help if means can be found to provide transportation from the city. Our historic tendency to put parks outside the transportation corridors has made the transportation issue more acute and difficult to solve. But nearly every city and metropolitan area has enormous transportation capacity sitting largely idle on weekends and holidays, because it is only geared to operate to and from work destinations.

Even towns without good transit systems may have dozens or hundreds of school buses sitting unused during the summers and on weekends and holidays. The capital investments are made. Operating costs are more manageable, especially if it is possible for the fare box to carry at least part of the burden.

National Park Service

Some ¾ of our population live in urban areas. Their recreational needs must be met.

Park agencies have not seen a responsibility in the past to those who don't or can't visit the park. But isn't this a professional concern that should be added to our agenda?

Item: Park programs have been playing "catch up ball" for thirty years and more, and the job is far larger than today's resources.

If the profession does a better job, particularly in serving a wider and more nearly complete measure of all the population, I am confident policy makers will see to it there are more resources available to do the job. But it is not realistic to think there will be money or staff or opportunity to do everything, especially if we do everything just the way we have in the past.

Protecting large urban landscapes is a prominent example. Parks have been seen as the way of preventing indiscriminate urban growth, and of protecting open space amenities—even when the area set aside had little recreational potential or resource significance. Strong support for creating the parks came because zoning, land use planning, and other measures had demonstrated a poor record in preventing destruction of the resource. Fee acquisition was used as the near-exclusive tool to guide land use.

We can do better—and more—if we sharpen our tools and make more widespread use of alternatives. We know they can work, if we will just do the professional and political homework. Less-than-fee acquisitions can prevent certain forms or densities of development, or provide public access for hiking, biking, or other non-intensive uses. Land use regulations, both compensated and uncompensated, can carry part of the load. More rigorous zoning, and tax incentives can help.

Almost none of the possible tools are new, and ample examples are available to give increasing levels of confidence that alternatives to fee acquisition can be devised on a scale and with a permanence compatible with long term public needs. The National Park Service has examples within the system of almost every type of acquisition and management option, ranging from affiliated areas totally managed by others to complex arrangements of joint ownership, administration, and financing. It seems probable and highly desirable that such mechanisms be expanded in the future, by all levels of government and private sources of park and recreation opportunities.

Such ways of doing business will complicate things, because fee ownership and independent management seem simpler, but the alternative is doing less and missing opportunities. However, these approaches will also require more money, making it even more imperative that new political support be found.

Expanded use of non-acquisition strategies will not mean doing less of the things done in the past, because those jobs will remain important in the future.

Let Us Accept the Challenge

"The quality of life in urban areas is critically affected by the availability of open spaces and recreation facilities. Yet hard-pressed communities often lack the resources to maintain and invest adequately in these amenities. . . .

But I believe that a New Partnership—bringing together in a common effort all who have a stake in the future of our communities—can bring us closer to our long-term goals. We can make America's cities more attractive places in which to live and work; we can help the people of urban America lead happier and more useful lives.

But we can only do it together."

President Jimmy Carter
Urban Policy Proposal to the Congress
March 27, 1978

Areas to be intensively developed and used by the public will continue to be acquired in fee. Unique resource areas and outstanding natural features will still require full protection. But a new balance will be found that represents a significant enlargement of the profession's capacity to serve public needs, and, maybe, we will spend less time catching up with past needs and more meeting present requirements.

Item: The profession must take a more eclectic approach to today's park issues.

Park professionals have been highly compartmentalized in the past, coming out of one or another single discipline and often spending an entire career within the same park system and sometimes within the same park. This needs to change. Park management today is one of the most complicated of professional jobs, involving skills that bridge resource concerns, environmental issues, human services and social activism, business management, and political savvy.

The broad, interdisciplinary nature of park planning and management in today's society will no longer permit narrow gauge managers and professionals. Many of today's pressing problems in rural parks, for example, are really extensions of problems confronting the urban park manager: vandalism, crowding, over-use, transportation systems, and pollution.

More intergovernmental exchange can help, and more rotational assignments within park systems to broaden the experience of managers and other staffs. The leaders of park systems in the future are likely to be men and women with broadly based experience that has exposed them to varying work environments, differing lifestyles, and diverse clienteles. As we do a better job of serving a more broadly defined clientele, it is even more probable that both the problems and opportunities associated with urban situations will also characterize rural parks.

One of the great opportunities is to bring into the cities a park ethic that attempts to distill from the great rural parks both types of experiences that can be replicated in and near the cities, and management styles that help preserve in our metropolitan areas the best of the remaining natural assets. The park professional can have a lead role in reclaiming land formerly developed, as efforts go forward to rebuild our cities.

A more universal point of view by park professionals and their roles will also offer opportunity to bring into the profession a more representative cross section of our society. It will not be possible to meet urban park challenges without staffs better representing minorities, women, and the broad pluralism of our culture.

The local and national forces now expressing concern for urban parks are pressing a subject that has evolved out of past realities in collision with present needs. Strong issues of social equity are involved which the profession dare not avoid. Responses based solely on bureaucratic protectionism are doomed to failure.

But having acknowledged the validity of the urban park issue, it is my professional hope that the distinctions between urban and rural parks will decrease and eventually disappear. We do not need two or more park systems-within-systems, but rather recognition that every system of parks will include a diverse array of resources and opportunities. The differences broaden the range of choice and opportunity. Overly emphasized distinctions breed we-they attitudes among professionals (which we don't need) and either-or choices by decision makers (which are self-defeating).

My professional philosophy rests on the proposition that today's most important park mission is to strike a new balance between all of the competing needs and opportunities for public service in parks and recreation.

All of the concepts and issues that have characterized the park profession's mission in the past: preservation, protection, visitor services, natural areas, wilderness, interpretive services, visitor protection, resources management, wildlife management, acquisition, development, and a similar list associated with the urban condition must be fashioned into a new balance that gives each a full measure of value.

I think of it as very similar to the experience of being a parent and finding it possible, even natural, to enlarge the measure of love of which we are capable as a new child is added to the family. Not at the expense of those who came first, but because the capacity to love has grown.

Park professionals have long ago demonstrated their love for the things they do and the treasured resources they nourish. That self-realization should give us the courage and incentive to embrace the evolutionary changes that surround us. Our cities and their people need that love.

William J. Whalen has been Director of the National Park Service since July, 1977.

Historic Preservationists and Conservationists: Partners for Urban Livability

by James Biddle

Perhaps unconsciously, historic preservationists and natural conservationists have long been partners in making our cities more appealing places to live.

Even the earliest historic preservationists—saving single buildings, often associated with a famous person or event—recognized that buildings and objects are diminished without their settings, and that structures are better understood when their surrounding environment—natural or landscaped—is intact.

Just as it is now easy to see that an important urban historic building like Independence Hall would have a reduced visual impact bordered by a shopping center instead of by extensive grounds and open space, early preservationists instinctively knew the importance of the historic setting for buildings.

Over the last decade or so, during which historic preservationists have significantly broadened their concerns, the alliance between the built and natural environments has become more important than ever. The two areas have become inseparable components in the effort to better our living environment generally.

Life in the Valley, With Green Space

For over the past ten or twelve years, historic preservation has ceased to be concerned only with that mansion on the hill. It is now clearly interested in all of us down here in the valley—including our neighborhoods, commercial areas, streets, parks, and working places. We spend 90 percent of our lives in buildings and in built settings. The integration of natural parks and open spaces into our daily urban experience is an important change of scene.

It has always been so. Many of our early city plans and town layouts, based on English and continental precedents, included "common areas" which were the focal point and center of activity for the town. Today, we would call them open spaces And they are considered as much a cultural resource as historic buildings, worth preserving as part of a whole historic area.

The early city plan of Washington, DC, for example, designed by Pierre L'Enfant in the eighteenth century, included numerous park areas—places like Logan Circle, DuPont Circle, Lafayette Square. Today we maintain these spots as enjoyable and historically important features of the city.

On a smaller scale, many of the country's early settlements were laid out to include a town common, with community-used buildings—the town hall, church, shops—nearby. Towns like Hudson, Ohio, originally part of the Western Reserve, today preserve this historical arrangement, acknowledging that green space is as much a part of that townscape as the magnificent Greek Revival buildings which border it.

The Push to Pave the Green

However, as both historic preservationists and conservationists know, preserving buildings or green space is often easier said than done. Private development pressure, highway construction, urban sprawl, industrialization, and other forces have turned far too many an open space into parking lots, strip development zones, and subdivisions, with little thought to conserving either the environment or the architectural resources at hand.

Concerned with the disappearance both of green space and important buildings in urban areas, preservationists and their conservation-minded counterparts have developed a number of techniques which can help to curb the pressures cited.

Techniques Which Can Help

- *Education and Public Information Programs.* Basic to preserving the built and natural environments is an understanding and appreciation of them. Community education and public information programs can build such appreciation, leading toward conservation action in the future. A community education program geared toward neighborhood preservation might well include the merits of conserving the neighborhood park. An anti-litter campaign for a whole area could improve the situation for both the buildings and the green space. A more sophisticated formal curriculum might explain local ecology and set out steps for conserving a city's vistas, wooded areas, and open spaces.

Designation as an Historic District helps protect the rural charm of Waterford, VA, located on the outskirts of metropolitan Washington, DC.

- *Urban and Town Planning and Mapping.* The preservation-oriented planning function is a town directing its own future growth—rather than trusting its future to luck or circumstance—and making a conscious evaluation of existing characteristics which make the community unique, and which are worth preserving. Such characteristics might include a special arrangement of buildings on the topography, important vistas, scenery, park or woodland areas, or groups of buildings important to the visual and historical qualities of the area.

  Once these qualities have been inventoried, they can be considered for special protection against incompatible future change or development.

  In preparing preservation planning maps, important cultural resources—built or natural—are codified, and their relative importance to the community assessed. These maps can become handy reference tools when plans for changing an area emerge.

- *Designation of Protected Areas.* Careful planning and mapping in advance of developmental pressure or other threats makes it practical for a community to assign special protection—often in the form of an historic district, landmark, or other designation—to important areas and their natural components. In effect, such protection can be considered a form of stronger zoning, identifying resources for particular attention and safeguarding them against incompatible future change.

Sam Stokes, National Trust for Historic Preservation

The nature of such protection, and the process by which proposed changes are reviewed, varies from city to city and from state to state. However, it is interesting to note that a number of cities which have developed historic preservation ordinances have included provisions to protect trees in particular. Among cities which have tree-protection ordinances are New York City; Santa Monica, and Santa Barbara, California; and Mobile, Alabama.

On the national level, an important district, site, building, structure, or object, including its setting, can be nominated for listing in the National Register of Historic Places.

A National Register listing can, in fact, specify particular landscape, horticultural, or natural elements on the property which contribute to its worthiness for inclusion. For instance, the Savannah (Georgia) Historic District listing mentions that " . . . wards feature tree-shaded central squares . . ..."; the Mount Auburn (Cincinnati, Ohio) Historic District listing cites a " . . . popular 19th c. residential district along (the) main avenue with park areas . . ..."; and the Jackson Square (New Orleans, Louisiana) listing includes the words, " . . . public park with (a) statue of Andrew Jackson . . . (the) focal point of the city since (the) first plan, now the hub of the French Quarter . . . ."

In practical terms, the inclusion of such elements in a National Register listing, or the existence of such areas within the borders of a National Register Historic District, provides for the same federal protection to the natural space as to the buildings covered by the listing.

The National Register listing demands (among other benefits) that any federal or federally-funded project take into account its effect on any National Register property.

The Advisory Council on Historic Preservation can comment on any federal project which it feels will create a negative effect, changing the quality of the historical, architectural, archaeological, or cultural quality which qualified the property for National Register listing in the first place. Such adverse effects include "isolation from or alteration of (a property's) surrounding environment."

• *Conservation Easements.* Easements are an increasingly popular means of achieving preservation of both an historic property and the landscape which surrounds it. An easement is a restriction imposed on a parcel of land for the benefit of someone other than the owner of the land.

There are a number of kinds of easements which apply to preserving building facades and open space, but for the purposes of this article it may be well to concentrate on the scenic easement. This can be assigned, in perpetuity, to preserve the natural beauty of a landscape, and may be used to preclude and protect development incompatible with the historic character of land surrounding an historic property.

An historic preservation easement is most often donated or sold by the property owner to a qualified national, state, or local private, nonprofit organization, such as the National Trust for Historic Preservation, state or local historic preservation organizations, or other public agencies.

It should be noted that there are a number of legal problems incident to the use of easements to achieve preservation, and that the drafter of the easement must exercise great care to assure that it conforms to statutory law applicable to such easements in the particular jurisdiction where the property is situated.

• *Regulating Residential Development.* While not the ordinary province of the historic preservationist, regulation of new construction and development is an integral part of the town planning process.

New development becomes the particular concern of the preservationist when small towns on a city's edge become engulfed by urban subdivision sprawl. Such development often lacks not only open space, but any compatibility with the rural lands which it overtakes.

The common argument that new city housing "has to go somewhere" is easily answered by this fact: careful placement of new housing and controlled development can greatly lessen the negative effect on city edges and outlying rural areas.

Consider this example of careful development planning. England and New York State occupy almost the same number of square miles—51,000 and 50,000 respectively (132,000 and 130,000 km^2). But while England has a population (more than 43 million) nearly two-and-a-half times as great as that of New York State (about 18 million), England appears to be far more rural in comparatively populated areas. The English have carefully integrated buildings into the landscape, and their planning has made the difference.

One well-known technique for maximum conservation of woodlands and open space, particularly in suburban subdivisions, is called "clustering" houses, rather than siting them on a grid pattern across a tract of land. By clustering structures, open space and wooded areas, commonly owned by all homeowners, can be retained between clusters. If sited correctly, the houses would each have a view of the open space rather than row upon row of other houses. The total number of houses built on the land tract would not be greater than it would have been had a grid pattern been used. This technique has been used successfully in such "new towns" as Reston, Virginia, and Columbia, Maryland.

As a footnote to these techniques, it should be said that in addition to the question of preserving green space in cities, the larger question of rural conservation is also an area in which the cooperation of historic preservationists and natural conservationists is indispensable.

National Park Service

ity dwellers and tourists alike enjoy Independence National Historic Park in Philadelphia, PA.

The Commitment of the National Trust

Since its 1949 Congressional charter, he National Trust has been concerned vith the important questions of onserving both historic buildings and pen space. In 1973, the Trustees of the rganization articulated a particular oncern for the natural environment in he study, *Goals and Programs of the National Trust*. For in that study, preservation was efined as "the protection and use of the istoric and cultural heritage, conducted n the context of the broad nvironmental and land use movement imed at the overall improvement of the uality of life."

To that end, the National Trust has ecently been involved in a number of ssues particularly concerning the onservation of natural or scenic areas.

In February of this year, our rganization awarded the Nature Conservancy a $3,500 matching Consultant Services Grant, to help rovide architectural advice on the estoration of Brownsville, an important arly nineteenth century house. The ouse will serve as an administrative enter for the Virginia Coast Reserve, ncompassing 13,000 acres (5,200 ha) of arrier islands and salt marshes along the astern shore of Virginia. The area is the ast set of unspoiled barrier islands on the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts of the United States.

In Charleston, South Carolina the Trust has been active in helping to create he Ashley River Conservation District of which a Trust property, Drayton Hall, is a part). The district includes a largely unspoiled stretch of highway outside of Charleston, lined with ancient live oaks, and frontage on both sides of the Ashley River. The landscape, an important setting for the historic plantations along the Ashley River, is threatened by commercial and tract development. The ultimate goal of the conservation effort is to secure easements on the scenic transportation route from the city of Charleston (the road and river), preventing undesirable alteration to the landscape.

In Loudoun County, Virginia, the easement technique is also being used to protect the Oatlands Historic District. There, three separate easements have been donated to the National Trust and to the Virginia Outdoors Foundation, protecting more than 600 acres (240 ha) of scenic land. The vistas are historically important to the area.

Yet another effort for open space conservation is being made in the Mid-Hudson River Valley, where many historic estates are in danger of falling into disrepair because of enormous maintenance costs. There the Trust has helped set up a task force, not only to encourage donation of scenic and open space easements in the area, but to facilitate the controlled and protected development of the area.

The Trust has sponsored two major conferences related to the environmental and landscape area: "Conserving the Historic and Cultural Landscape" (May, 1975), and "International Conference on the Preservation and Restoration of Historic Gardens and Landscapes" (April, 1975). The proceedings of both conferences, as well as many other titles on the general topic of land conservation as it relates to historic preservation, are available through the Trust bookstore, located at 740 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington, DC.

The field and regional offices of the National Trust, in six cities across the country, provide advisory services on all areas of historic preservation, and are also equipped to help with problems of open space conservation as they relate to preservation.

As preservationists and conservationists increasingly realize the mutual concerns we share, our alliance and cooperation will become ever stronger. For the environment has always interplayed with the forces of man, sometimes changing the course of history in a dramatic or sudden way, but more often molding its direction over a long period of time. But always it has been man's way to interact with nature, making the preservation of the built environment and that of the natural a logical partnership for the present and for the future.

James Biddle is president of the National Trust for Historic Preservation, a private national organization which was chartered by the U.S. Congress to facilitate public participation in the preservation of the built environment. Headquartered in Washington, it has regional offices in Boston (MA), Chicago (IL), Charleston (SC), Oklahoma City (OK), and San Francisco (CA). The Trust's membership numbers 140,000.

Conservation, Parks, and Urban Revitalization

by Dwight F. Rettie

Healthy parks are one of the vital lifesigns of a healthy community. Deteriorated or unused parks are often a starkly visible symptom of urban blight and decay. Too often, a city's parks and its recreation programs are among the first public resources to manifest neglect when a neighborhood begins to go downhill.

In a similar manner, however, park restoration and effective recreation programming may be highly cost-effective first steps in neighborhood revitalization, bringing to the people a renewed pride in their community and evidence that the tide of decay has turned. New and renewed parks and open spaces and the programs to accompany them must be important components of urban redevelopment strategies.

At Crotona Park, a large swimming pool could serve many more with rehabilitation and better staffing.

National Park Service

Facilities like these can be constructed quickly with less cost and controversy than many other needed changes.

New Challenges

Urban and man-made resources, like resources in rural areas, are often exhaustible. We can exhaust our cities just as surely as an oil well or a vein of coal.

"Exhaust" may be too tame a term to describe the South Bronx. To be sure it is not a very pretty place—some have compared it to Berlin after World War II. The comparison is visually apt.

One of the miracles of today's South Bronx is the fact that people still live there. Many of these people are committed to the area's revitalization and dedicated to making it a good and safe place to live again. Every day new organizations are formed and other new commitments made to put together the many, many pieces of a strategy that can bring the South Bronx back from hell.

The assets of that community are many. A generally strong development infrastructure. Good public transit access and good transportation access by both truck and rail to other parts of the metropolitan region. Several good, but generally run down parks. Clusters of good, stable housing and businesses upon which to build and renew. Some handsome architectural examples and a block here and there that warrants preservation. And the Grand Concourse, whose elegance struggles to survive while nearly surrounded by creeping blight.

As a site for a major focus in urban revitalization, the South Bronx is surely a high-risk chance. Problems there are bigger than almost anywhere else. The scale is beyond everything except the devastation of war.

But it is perhaps for that reason that the South Bronx offers opportunity. Its severity and size can muster a level and intensity of attention and talent that lesser projects would fail to arouse.

And if something works in the South Bronx, there is perhaps a better chance it can work elsewhere. The notion that by focusing special attention on the South Bronx new models for other stricken areas could be developed, was a major reason for President Carter's setting up a special inter-agency steering group to develop new approaches to solving some of these most difficult problems of our cities.

Can Parks Save the South Bronx?

Park planning will be on the "ground floor" of South Bronx revitalization—not as an afterthought, but as a major tool in the total effort. Early parks and recreation involvement means that open space planning can be an integral part of other land use planning. And open spaces and parks should be woven into the fabric of the new concept, not pegged for the leftover lands later on.

Certainly one reason behind the larger role for parks and open space planning is the high probability that, in the future, large amounts of land in the South Bronx will be cleared permanently and not replaced with housing or industry. Though there will certainly be much new housing and industry to serve both present and new residents, one of the basic policy foundations of South Bronx planning is that the final results will not be large, high-density infusions of new structures. Speculation has suggested there might be added to the present South Bronx open space area as large as two Central Parks.

Park and recreation planning will need to be effectively integrated into other elements of urban planning—housing, economic development, law enforcement, health services, education, and so forth. If this is to happen, new institutional forms for urban planning will have to be developed and new bridges spanned between the various disciplines that make up the urban planning spectrum.

Beneficial Alliances

Recreational uses can be given consideration for both present buildings and other structures capable of being rehabilitated or adaptively reused. The recreation delivery system can contribute to both broader public involvement in the planning process itself, and to other complementary public service delivery systems. Not all public service administrators appreciate the near-total outreach capability of the recreation delivery system, if there are resources available to use it. The recreation system

National Park Service

Like gravestones, empty stantions of park benches serve as grim reminders that parks live and die with the community they serve. Derelict parks are a powerfully ugly statement.

has opportunity to utilize many other publicly financed and owned facilities (and many private ones), without requiring discrete facilities. Schools are the best example. (In New York City, schools are generally off limits after hours, except at "rental" rates that are prohibitive to most groups.) Many public service professionals have opportunity to contribute to the recreation program and the recreation staff can be important communicators of other messages and services.

Another advantage of early parks and recreation involvement in urban planning will be more timely attention to long term operating and maintenance problems associated with new or enlarged capital plants. Capital investments without adequate money for software components can lead to disaster.

Educated Projections

The shape of the South Bronx plan is not very clear at this time. A lot more homework and local public involvement is needed before heavy decisions are made and commitments set in concrete (literally). The plan must be primarily a local product that draws strength from intense local commitment. To date, the President's steering group has emphasized responsiveness to local planning, not imposition of a plan from Washington.

Some generalizations and topical concepts can be projected, however

The plan ought to include a land use element for all of the South Bronx, including the creation or enhancement of open space, parks and playgrounds, and perhaps something as ambitious as a South Bronx greenbelt. The plan should also include a public service element embracing all specific recreation and park programs and also recreation-related components in other public service systems, such as the schools, senior citizen and day care centers, drug treatment facilities, and law enforcement agencies. The plan should also include strategies for implementation and phasing.

The plan also ought to cover the management and delivery systems associated with parks, playgrounds, recreation centers, the greenbelt, and so forth.

Specific elements that might be considered are:

- Family and community gardens, as both a temporary use of vacant land and as a permanent environmental feature.
- Identification and conservation of significant historic properties, including individual buildings and groups of buildings for both public and private use.
- Neighborhood beautification, tree planting, street furniture, play apparatus, lighting, landscaping, outdoor art, and sign controls.
- Use of the police powers to facilitate open space dedication and public uses, including zoning, sale or lease-back arrangements, cooperative land use agreements, and so forth.
- Cooperative management strategies, utilizing the specialized capacities of all levels of government in both technical assistance and training roles or in longer term arrangements.
- Job training and employment potential of the parks and recreation system, including neighborhood beautification, open space maintenance, and greenbelt development.
- Role of private and volunteer activities in community parks and recreation, including recreational programs by private industry for employees and their families.
- Improving the role of school facilities and staff in the recreation delivery system.

No urban conservation here—just deterioration that boggles the mind. We know too little about the pathology of such decay.

- Role of recreation services for the long-term unemployed and young people out of school and out of work—a large potential clientele in the South Bronx.
- Potential for significant private, commercial, recreational, and leisure industry development in the area.
- Effectiveness of recreation centers as outlets for complementary public services, such as day care, meals for senior citizens, and so forth.
- Availability and accessibility of recreation services to handicapped persons, the home-bound, and other special groups.
- Transportation access to local, community, regional, and national park and recreation facilities.

There seems little doubt that parks and recreation planning can make a significant contribution to the strategy for South Bronx revitalization. But it seems to the author, that park planning can bring to the effort something of perhaps even more significance than physical facilities, open spaces, and programs—though these will be important enough to warrant the sustained creative effort that will be required.

What can come of this effort is a new awareness of conservation as a concept as valid for the cities as for rural and farm landscapes.

Parks in the South Bronx in some places are the only surviving amenity, and they have seen better days. Nevertheless they remain well used, signaling their importance to the community.

National Park Service

Urban Conservation Needs Ignored

Traditionally, conservation and ecology have been mostly rural concerns, even among the professionals in the field. Intellectuals of the American conservation movement, from John Wesley Powell and Gifford Pinchot, to John Muir, Aldo Leopold, and Rachel Carson, have seen a continent of land and forests, of soil and water, of wildlife and wilderness, but not cities.

The conservation ethic covers farm soil, timber, wildlife, water, air, and (to a small but growing extent) non-renewable resources—but not cities.

Principles of sustained yield attempt to insure the perpetual supply of timber and forage, but there is no comparable concept to insure the long-term habitability of our cities and their resources.

City planners have almost always put their ideas on a blank sheet of paper, taking little account of the basic land and natural resource base upon which more than three-quarters of the people in this country now live. Federally supported urban renewal demanded (until very recently) that the old be demolished and the land cleared. Start fresh. New, not renew.

Like firefighters who seek to stop the wholesale demolition of our cities, historic preservationists have sought to save the richest of the city's historic resources, but saving is only part of the process, analogous perhaps to the role of wilderness preservation in the natural environment.

The American park and conservation movement is a remarkable social phenomenon—populist, pluralistic in its membership, well organized and politically active, with a strong coalition of scientists and civilians who cross-fertilize each other with facts and fervor to accomplish many wonderful things. At the same time, however, and even though most conservationists are themselves city dwellers, they have treated the conservation ethic as something that applies to lands outside their own living environment.

The traditional conservation movement is rarely involved in urban environmental issues. Conversely, the leadership in urban planning and urban systems expresses only occasional identity with conservation ideology. Some urban interests view the conservation movement as a political threat, because they see conservation draining away needed resources and further endangering the fiscal base of the city.

But the reverse is also true. Many conservationists view increased interest and commitment to meeting urban needs as a threat to their historic role.

Part of the problem stems from the almost intuitive nature of conservation ideology. The literature is full of references to the "conservation ethic," but aside from a few standard phrases there is no agreed upon statement or body of literature that defines the conservation ethic. Some of it is intuitive or emotional, some of it scientific, and much of it ad hoc and case-specific.

"WHAT A PARK IS"

Fun
Ants
A bee
Grass
A nest
Clover
A ball
Sunburn
Pigeons
Frisbees
Swimming
Squirrels
Open space
A fountain
A dirt pile
Wild flowers
A quiet place
Hide and seek
A pretty place
People kissing
Touch football
A natural place
A pool of water
People sunbathing
Sailing toy boats
Dew in the morning
A place to explore
A place to be alone
A cool, shady place
Litter somebody left
A place for a statue
A place that is green
A place to skateboard
A thing to jog through
A place to ride a bike
"Push me on the swing"
Getting back to nature
A place to meet friends
A place where trees grow
Shiny green after a rain
A place to sit in the sun
A place where animals live
A place where flowers bloom
A place to roll down a hill
A place to find a new friend
A place to stomp on new snow
Where to find a secret place

A place to be with a group of friends
A place to think something through
A place to make believe something
Washing the car Sunday afternoon
Something complementing the city
People watching a game of chess
Old people watching and talking
A place that's sometimes scary
Looking for a four leaf clover
Where it's fun to go barefoot
A place to watch other people
Where to walk a baby stroller
A place that is not concrete
Where neighbors hold a party
Where a band sometimes plays
A place where houses aren't
A place to play basketball
Pretty colors in the fall
A place that smells nice
A place to climb a tree
A place to watch birds
Sledding in the winter
A place to play tennis
"Want to play catch?"
Sledding on cardboard
A place for a picnic
Old people watching
Where to fly a kite
Blowing dandelions
Children on swings
A family together
A place to play
A teeter totter
A place to rest
Reading a book
A noise buffer
Lunch at noon
Grass stains
Ice skating
Fun noises
Mosquitoes
Laughter
Softball
Benches
A swan
Rocks
Sun

Countering Rural Nostalgia

Another part of this problem stems from our often-stated disdain for cities and city life. There is a deep seated myth in our national culture to the effect that if everyone had his own way and the opportunity, he would live in the suburbs or a rural community. Rural nostalgia enjoys a currency far wider than its natural constituency.

The author thinks it is important to recognize that most people who live in cities do not do so against their will. Most city dwellers want to live there because life in the city has for them a job, a home, a sense of place and neighborhood, with cultural and social amenities of great value to a quality lifestyle.

If there are some of us who see monotony in the suburbs, who see waste in the lengthy commute to and from work, who complain about the lack of cultured life and open space in the endless sprawl of new subdivisions, and who yearn for architectural boldness—we are all striving urbanites who would improve the city, not people who have given it up and who want to abandon it or go back to small town or farm life.

The existence of many among us who do want to live a life closer to nature and on a scale more humane takes away nothing from the city and its people. These, too, are valid elements of an urban conservation ethic.

Urban Conservation Ethic Needed

Right now there isn't such a thing as an urban conservation ethic, but there ought to be one. If we do not invent one, our cities may die. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say we may destroy them.

We need an urban conservation ethic that embraces for our cities and their people those elements of ecology that have become so important for rural resources.

New efforts need to be made to distill from the conservation heritage and the principles and guidelines that can influence public and private policies, investments, and political actions.

The concept ought to be scientific, emotional, intuitive, and case-specific. It should reflect the same value system that gives such dynamic motivation to rural conservationists.

National Park Service

Community gardens in the South Bronx help provide needed food and are an important amenity and commitment to renewal.

The future or our cities is as much an issue of the mind, a question of value systems, a perspective on the future as it is brick and mortar and money and politics.

An urban conservation ethic should contain an awareness that actions taken today will have direct and specific consequences in the future. It ought to help us plan as if there is a future for the city. (Could we really agree on that?)

The idea should include a commitment to invest public and private money now, even though expected benefits may not result for another generation or longer. We plant new trees that will not be harvested for half a century. We should make investments in our cities with a comparable commitment to the future.

An urban conservation ethic should reinforce man's interdependence with the natural and man-made systems around us. We know more about the life cycle of many species of wildlife than we do about the geriatrics of cities.

An urban conservation ethic should articulate an abiding appreciation for our historical patrimony, and for both natural and man-made beauty. We should be more sensitive to—even intolerant of—the ugliness we cause.

An urban conservation ethic would celebrate the random diversity of our cities with the same enthusiasm that the rural conservation ethic guards endangered species of plants and animals. Rich cultural resources can be lost forever—skills, songs, and whole lifestyles—with the same finality as the disappearance of the passenger pigeon.

A Powerful Idea

Social change is the product of ideas—and people who are willing to act in their behalf. Urban parks hold the potential for being much more than places, much more than resources that can set the pace for healing our cities. They can be an idea—a living value system to which people can rally and give allegiance and with which the quality of life can be changed a little.

Recognized as an idea more powerful than mere physical presence, urban parks can help revitalize our cities. They may even be one of the important determinants of whether the South Bronx is once again a livable environment.

Dwight F. Rettie is currently with the National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior. Formerly he has directed the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development's (HUD) open space land programs and has served as Executive Director of the National Recreation and Park Association.

NPS and Urban Parks: Past Record, Future Promise

by Theodore R. McCann and Nancy J. Schmitz

Since its inception in 1916, the National Park Service and its system of parks has proved to be as dynamic in terms of growth and change as the American society itself. From its original inventory of 13 natural areas, the National Park System has grown to 294 units, including national parks, national historic sites, battlefields, and monuments, national seashores, lakeshores, recreation areas, and parkways.

Each generation and its representatives in Congress have wrought changes and additions to the Service's philosophy, catalog of sites, missions, and goals. The process continues today, as massive additions of *natural areas* to the Park System contained in the Alaska legislation are being debated in the halls of Congress. At the same time, however, over a dozen bills are pending for proposed urban-situated sites to be acquired by the National Park Service, including Jean Lafitte in New Orleans, Santa Monica Mountains and Channel Islands near Los Angeles, Chattahoochee in Atlanta, and lands around the Boston Harbor.

Today's National Park System is *not*, as its name would imply, a true system. Rather, it is an uneven collection of great wilderness tracts, battlefields, historic houses, symbols of great events, and people lost in time. Some parks are national shrines and others political aberrations whose origins are barely recalled. They are a large brood, born of politics, sentiment, Thoreau's ideals, and sometimes a sense of history. There are national parks accessible only by air and water, others that are in the very middle of our largest urban centers. The Service manages sites which range from homes of great presidents to retreats for the golden eagle and the brown bear; sites which honor the founder of the Red Cross, artists, poets, and outlaws; areas representing fire and ice, sand and sea, and nearly every other physiographic phenomena of the western hemisphere.

Amidst this wide range of areas managed by the National Park Service—covering some 31 million acres (some 12 million hectares) in 49 states, the District

f Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin slands—none are formally designated as urban parks." Yet 109 sites within the ystem are in urban locations. In every ractical sense, they are urban hysically *in* towns and cities and in etropolitan communities which impact nd are impacted by the presence of a ational park site

rom Wilderness to the Cities

Recently, the issue of the NPS role in rban areas has become one of the most eated and seemingly nonstop dialogues n its history In spite of massive dditions to the System during the ohnson Administration, many onservationists had become uneasy bout certain trends in the Service they erceived as dangerous. Perhaps fueled y the fiscal restraints of the Vietnam Var, the alarm bell had rung with the arly Gateway studies and Secretary of he Interior Walter Hickel's ronouncements in 1969 for a new urban mphasis estimated to cost billions. Hickel's plans were aborted when that dministration abandoned its urban upport and generally opposed any NPS nlargement. The early studies which vere favorable for the Gateways in New York City and San Francisco became a urious "half-victory" for urban ecreation supporters. Temporarily, it vas the end of a rather bright beginning.

The battlelines of traditional onservationists against the urban ecreationists had been slow in forming, ut mobilized with the advent of the Gateway proposals. While Peter Marcuse, in the July 1971 *Parks and Recreation*, pondered whether the whole onservation movement *was* anti-urban, NPS Director Hartzog was also under heavy attack from several sources as ushing park development and urban ecreation to the neglect of the "true" ark mission—preservation.

In 1972, when Congress did authorize he two Gateway national recreation reas in New York and San Francisco, hey were hailed by many as "bringing arks to the people." Critics felt therwise, viewing them as threats to he Park System by draining fiscal

National Park Service

Golden Gate National Recreation Area (CA) represents one type of National Park Service response to the needs of city dwellers.

resources away from the older western parks. Both Gateways are defined as national recreation areas, yet most people call them "urban parks." Two years later, Ohio's Cuyahoga Valley was added which formed a trio that is generally thought of as "national urban parks."

The same battlelines were clearly evident in the report on the National Park System's future prepared by the Conservation Foundation in 1972, the same year as the Gateway enactments. One portion concludes, "the Gateways are not appropriate as prototypes through which the federal government should respond to the recreational needs of inner-city residents. Further, the National Park Service is not the appropriate agency for the job." Yet, in the same report, another group suggested setting up a $100 billion bond issue to "buy back America" by providing hundreds of small parks in urban areas.

In retrospect, the Cuyahoga Valley National Recreation Area will probably prove to represent the last great battleground between the pro- and anti-urban park factions. The Administration, including the Interior agencies had been allied against it from the beginning. But it turned out that in the state of Ohio, nearly all factions within the proposed park's region in Northeast Ohio, as well as the region's U.S. Congressional representatives, were *for* it The Cuyahoga NRA was passed into law by widespread margins *and* in the shortest period of time that any park bill had ever experienced in Congress.

The Congressional Research Service called the Cuyahoga NRA authorization "probably the most significant park legislation since the 1965 Land and Water Conservation Fund Act." They viewed the move as representing a whole new basis for evaluating future additions to the National Park System. In short, a new chapter had been written, to be integrated into the mainstream of park and conservation history.

But old myths, fears, and animosities rarely die easily or quickly. Urban parks are still opposed by some factions who call them "costly" and a "bottomless pit." Unfounded fears have been triggered that every city in the country will want the National Park Service to provide them a Gateway or Cuyahoga. But these allegations have not been proven valid

Facts Rebut Excessive-Cost Fears

The alleged exhorbitant costs of national urban parks is a criticism quickly deflated when the facts are addressed. Recently passed legislation for Redwood National Park (CA) additions carries acquisition costs in the neighborhood of $350 million. Lands for Big Cypress National Preserve in Florida are running up to $160 million. Compared to these

National Park Service

Solitude off Sandy Hook (NJ)—part of Gateway National Recreation Area (NY, NJ).

large, relatively remote national sites, the new national urban parks appear to be bargains.

To date, Gateway NRA has cost only $155,600, since much of its 26,000 acres (10,400 ha) was either donated by New York City or transferred as surplus property from the U.S. Army. Golden Gate NRA's 34,000 acres (13,600 ha) have only burdened the federal government for a $41 million outlay and Cuyahoga has a limit of $41 million. Clearly, the trio of national urban recreational areas together doesn't even approach acquisition costs of some natural parks.

Operations and maintenance aren't excessive burdens, either. A visitor to Gateway cost only $0.75 last year, while Yellowstone's visitors required $3.00 each. Similarly, the "close-to-home" recreational opportunities at Golden Gate were enjoyed by some 6.5 million urbanites at a cost of only $0.60 a piece, while the nearly 3 million that flocked to Yosemite for a remote wilderness experience burdened the federal government for $2.15 each.

Fears that more and more cities will want a Gateway appear overly paranoid. The recent National Urban Recreation Study surveyed the park and recreation needs of 17 major urban areas throughout the country. Few new potential national park sites were uncovered, even in the hearts of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSAs) with acute recreation deficiencies. Local park and recreation systems by and large report critical needs of operations and maintenance dollars and rehabilitation funds for existing resources; they want federal aid for these functions rather than for new land.

A Matter of Management

Among the 109 urban sites administered by the National Park Service, many are small but significant, and centrally located in cities. A survey of 15 of those urban areas revealed that where strong, innovative management responds to and influences community attention, even a small national site—like Chamizal National Memorial in El Paso (TX) or the better known Independence National Historical Park (PA) and Jefferson National Expansion Memorial (MO)—can have a huge impact on its urban milieu. Only minimal federal funding for interpretive programs is generally provided, but many of these urban parks have successfully supplemented their budgets with private interest groups' support—in dollars, volunteer staff, and program development. Such support from a local community clearly indicates its pride in the existence of the park in its city.

Other independent researchers found similar answers. One of these, Dr. Diana Dunn, in *Open Space and Recreation Opportunities in America's Urban Cities*, concluded,

> ". . . that it is not the amount of open space *per se* that determines the recreational health of a community. Where open space is located, the programs conducted on it, the responsiveness of the personnel who run it, the physical condition of the space itself, and the location of the open space relative to the actual centers of community participation are far more significant factors."

It is in these areas that Dr. Dunn has articulated that the National Park Service has made its most significant urban park contributions. It partially explains why Gateway NRA in New York now draws 10 million people annually to the same identical facilities that only drew 3.5 million four years before. It explains why each year some 37 million people use 15 NPS sites managed in cities across the country. If you have an attractive, well-managed, and strategically located site with interesting programs, people will come—and in the large cities, by the millions.

Problem Areas

However, successful efforts of NPS management in its urban sites should not be overstated or taken as the norm. Unfortunate circumstances were revealed in some of the 15 surveyed NPS urban sites where efforts to expand programs responsive to the local demands have been hampered, much to the chagrin of the parks' managers, by a combination of several factors, including:

- Budget restrictions and personnel ceilings have severely affected management's ability to meet users' needs. Except for special Bicentennial Funding, annual budget increases have often not even covered the bite of inflation.
- Urban park managers and staffs deal with many more complexities than those in rural areas. Yet, these basic differences are not generally reflected in either personnel grades or budgets. High costs-of-living and higher wage scales for other jobs in the cities make it difficult to recruit qualified staff in these parks.

• In the past, the lack of a clear urban policy from higher levels of NPS management caused many frustrations for these parks. Many of the surveyed parks have been confronted with the issue of whether their role in the community should be a developer or facilitator of programs responsive to the urban publics. Some have implemented a role combining these approaches, but often without support or direction from anywhere else in the System.

National Park Service

Cuyahoga Valley National Recreation Area, threads through the Ohio landscape between Cleveland and Akron

Future Directions

Basically, the Service is confronting a two-prong issue: how to more effectively respond to those urban publics located near its existing sites in metropolitan areas; and how to respond to the controversial pressures for an expanded role in more urban areas.

The most obvious impact on future directions for the Service regards the urban public's response to energy shortages and inflation, and the unemployment problem rampant in many fiscally-depressed cities. In combination, these factors will cause extreme political pressures for close-to-home recreation and increased job opportunities. The large remote national parks are already feeling the crunch in reduced visitation. The old-line middle class client now often chooses the excursion flight to Europe over the long trek to Yellowstone or Grand Canyon which has become too expensive. The less affluent must rely on frequently inadequate nearby recreation and park resources. If the travel statistics are any indication, overall they show large gains in urban parks' use and much less proportionate visitation for the more remote natural parks in the National Park System. Certainly, the tremendous leaps in visitation to the Gateways since 1972, as well as heavy usage of the newer Cuyahoga NRA, appear to back up the national indicators.

In recent years, millions have become increasingly attracted to such cheaper leisure diversions as tennis, jogging, bicycling, and hiking. National indices show a remarkable climb in creative pursuits, cultural activities, and sold-out events of all kinds. Such activities are replacing the time, energy, and money that formerly went into camping vacations at distant natural areas and the long automobile excursions many made across the country in past years. Furthermore, nearly all levels of society have had increasing leisure time—time which was previously spent in work and family care at home. The elderly, the handicapped, the unemployed and underemployed, the minorities, and adolescents, all look for and need close-to-home recreation along with the affluent working classes.

The combination of these socio-economic trends among the nation's urban public—representing some seventy percent of the total U.S. population—has not escaped the attention of the institutionalized conduits of change—special interest groups, the Congress, and the Administration. Pressure has mounted towards the National Park Service's performing a more responsive urban role, though not with expectation that it will be the sole actor in the urban recreation arena.

The strong adversity towards national urban parks traditionally found among the conservationists has significantly diminished. Indeed, the traditionally wilderness-oriented Sierra Club last November formally supported "the establishment of appropriate units of a national park system near urban areas" as part of its increasing attention to the "inner-city frontier." And two years ago, the Conservation Foundation, in its monthly letter, reversed its earlier ambiguous position on the Service's role in urban parks by the strong assertion that:

> Beginning in 1872, the promise of the parks has been realized in a great collection of landscapes. The National Park System should now be expanded to include two tiers of parks, one tier focused on scenic grandeur and on preservation of a mosaic of native America, the other on preserving landscapes with natural values for Americans. This kind of unified system of urban and wilderness parks, reflecting the diversity of our land and people, would play a major role in shaping the ecological conscience of America's third century. The future of the Gateways is intimately linked with the fate of Yellowstone and Yosemite, for it is most likely in the urban parks that the great majority of Americans will discover the values of outdoor recreation and ecological integrity.

The Congress has not let the Gateways and Cuyahoga suffice for NPS involvement in urban areas. Legislation has been proposed in the 95th Congress to provide for ten new parks in urban areas. While the Alaska legislation has preoccupied the attention of the 95th Congress, Rep. Philip Burton has included several of these proposed areas in the omnibus bill (H.R. 12536), an action which may expedite their authorization this year. In any event, they will resurface again if not passed during this Congress, as they have in the past.

Proposed National Reserves

The burden on the federal government regarding these potential new national parks is not as great as may appear on the surface. Many of these areas propose some type of federal/state/local acquisition and management arrangement. New Jersey Senators Clifford Case and Harrison Williams have proposed a whole system of national reserves "for the protection of outstanding ecological, scenic, historic, cultural, and recreational landscapes,"

which would bring federal, state, and local governments into a flexible partnership, providing mechanisms "by which these areas can be managed as living landscapes wherein private ownerships, existing communities, and traditional land uses can be maintained, even as their outstanding public values are protected." The approach would mean better cost-effectiveness of natural and cultural resource conservation by providing alternatives to full federal acquisition, planning, development, and management.

But whether a whole *system* of natural reserves is indeed legislated is not as important as implementing mechanisms for less than full federal acquisition and control in proposed new areas to the National Park System. Not to be overlooked is the potential for transfer of surplus federal property—i.e., the Gateways—since a substantial inventory of such lands, mostly military, does exist in recreation-starved urban areas and is essentially cost free for acquisition.

The fears that the NPS will be forced to take over numerous areas in the nation's cities is impractical and unrealistic. These fears should be diminished by the recently legislated requirement for new area studies, with no less than 12 potential additions to the System to be reported annually to Congress. This should prove a safeguard against an onslaught of urban parks without adequate study of their national significance.

The need for the NPS to improve efforts in its existing urban-situated sites has been long overdue. Recently, the Carter Administration's urban policy has provided the catalyst for the Department of the Interior to at last take a good hard look at the NPS potential in these areas. Since the National Park Service manages more urban land solely for park, recreational, and historical purposes than any other federal agency, it is obviously a primary federal agency to be involved with an expanded, more responsive federal role in the cities. In a changing world, the National Park Service can and hopefully will meet that challenge.

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Boston's Urban Wilds

by Ralph Memolo

A wealth of wooded swamps can be found in West Roxbury.

Boston is a city that heeds tradition. Landmark buildings (and burial grounds right in the middle of the business district) are faithfully preserved and well maintained. Certain events, such as the Friday afternoon concerts of the Boston Symphony Orchestra, have taken on the flavor of a ritual. And life in city neighborhoods is enriched by strict adherence to folkways, as in the case of the Italian religious festivals which take place each summer in the North End.

Among those things which link present-day Boston to its rich past is a certain reverence for wilderness and parklands. It is said that the location of the city itself was chosen because its hills and meandering streams reminded the early settlers of the countryside in their native England.

In 1634, four years after the city was founded, the colonists pooled their resources—each paying 6 shillings—to purchase 48 acres (19.6 ha) of land on the Shawmut Peninsula for a "Common" which was set aside as a place to pasture cattle and as a training ground for the militia. The "Common," of course, is now America's oldest park. To this day it is the best known and perhaps most used park in the city's entire park system.

In the nineteenth century, Frederick Law Olmsted was called to Boston to create the city's famous "Emerald Necklace" of parks, one of this country's first park systems. Shortly after, Boston created the first public children's playgrounds in the United States.

At the same time, Boston, because it has never had enough land to accommodate its growing population, dramatically rearranged its topography to create sufficient land to absorb its steady pattern of growth. Boston literally leveled its hills, filled marshes and swampland, and otherwise reclaimed land so that the original peninsula on which it was founded was tripled in size by the beginning of the twentieth century.

Thus, for all its parks and network of open space, the popular image of Boston is of a place that is so highly developed that traffic can hardly move through its narrow and crooked streets. The legendary traffic jams are all too true and the streets are definitely narrow and crooked. Virtually every tract of land which can be developed has been developed. Nevertheless, Boston abounds in unprotected natural areas, oases of beauty hidden away within the densely-developed city.

More often than not these areas have remained in their natural state because they were not desirable for development. As the demand for development grows, even these areas—whether they are wetlands or rock outcroppings—could be lost to development.

This is where tradition steps in. Boston has come up with a pioneering effort in open space management specifically aimed at safeguarding and retaining these last bits of urban wilderness.

The program is called Boston Urban Wilds and it had its inception in a study undertaken by the Boston Redevelopment Authority, which is the city's planning agency.

Intensive Inventory

With a $50,000 matching grant from the National Endowment for the Arts' "City Options" program, the BRA embarked on a study which involved an extensive search, examination, complete listing, and description of the unprotected natural areas in Boston.

The inventory was thorough: each site was visited at least once (the entire Boston shoreline was explored on foot) and aerial photographs, United States Geological Surveys, and city topographic maps were studied. The files of the Boston Conservation Commission, which since 1970 has been conducting hearings on proposed filling or alteration to inland and coastal wetlands, provided extensive information on individual wetland areas.

Ultimately, 143 Urban Wilds sites, totaling 2,000 acres (800 ha) were identified and inventoried. These included 68 sites of geological significance, 12 inland and 8 coastal wetland sites, 28 sites having important vegetation, and 27 sites along the shoreline.

Each site's characteristics and potential for conservation and/or other uses were assessed and the sites were ranked in terms of environmental significance. Then, in conjunction with the open space needs of each neighborhood (which were also evaluated) and the threat of development, priorities for action were drawn up, covering every Urban Wilds location.

Ranking of Sites

The environmental significance of each Urban Wilds site was determined by analyzing its physical and visual characteristics as well as its educational, recreational, or historical potential. The sites were ranked on a scale from most to least significant:

- "Most Significant" sites have a diversity of natural features and vegetation and range in size from 25 acres to 100 acres (10 to 40 ha).

Boston Redevelopment Authority

Chandler Pond, ringed with woodland, is a typical Boston Urban Wilds Site.

- "Significant" sites generally have one predominant natural or scenic feature and range in size from 5 acres to 25 acres (2 to 10 ha).
- "Less Significant" sites range in size from one-half acre to five acres (.2 to 2 ha), are usually located adjacent to water and have generally disturbed conditions due to prior industrial activity.

A Wealth of Resources Revealed

The initial inventory revealed that Boston was indeed blessed with a variety of urban wilds far greater than anyone would have expected.

In East Boston, for instance, the largest saltwater marshes in the city can be found within a five-minute walk of two rapid transit stations. These salt marshes comprise approximately 515 acres (206 ha) and are the most expansive open spaces remaining in Boston.

In Brighton, there remain over 100 acres (40 ha) of open space that are reminiscent of that area's 19th century landscape. Spectacular panoramas of the city can be viewed from hillside sites and on the grounds of a nearby seminary there are broad meadows and apple orchards rising up to a hillside wooded by majestic oak trees.

The attractiveness of the sites made all the more obvious the needs for the Urban Wilds project to identify the appropriate means by which these areas could be protected and preserved.

As Boston Mayor Kevin H. White put it, "We are dealing with a finite resource. Boston is a small city in terms of land mass, but it is a city whose topography is extremely rich and varied. It is our obligation to protect this resource for future generations. And it is in our best interests to protect these sites as part of a process rather than to wait for 11th hour appeals when they are threatened by development."

Protecting the Urban Wilds

Analysis of the ownership and tax status conditions of all 143 Urban Wilds sites showed that one-half of them were already owned by the city of Boston and other units of government and could, therefore, permanently be preserved without further reducing the existing tax base. It was also discovered that the privately owned Urban Wilds sites could, through various strategies, be protected without great financial strain on the city.

The following conservation methods were identified as appropriate means for protecting Boston's Urban Wilds sites.

1. Land held by local and state governments can be *transferred* by each

Boston Redevelopment Authority

Rock outcropping at Foster Street in Brighton serves as outdoor classroom for geology students and gives neighborhood children a place to play.

of them into the care and control of appropriate conservation or open space management agencies for conservation and recreation purposes. (Thirty-six Urban Wilds sites currently owned by the state and city governments can be protected by this method).

2. The city can purchase by *fee simple acquisition* privately owned Urban Wilds sites if and when an owner decides to sell. Existing reserved monies of the city's parkland replacement fund are available for this purpose without current cost to the city. Also there are state and federal reimbursement aids for such purchases currently available in amounts up to 75 percent of the approved project land acquisition cost.
3. The city of Boston, by either its Park Commission or its Conservation Commission, can accept *gifts of privately owned land in fee*. These gifts of land can be donated from personal, corporate, or institutional sources. In addition, gifts of land from state or federal units of government can be accepted. This does not require expenditure of public funds, and it may result in tax savings for the donor.
4. The city of Boston may seek and accept gifts of a less-than-fee interest in privately owned Urban Wilds sites and other lands and may propose to purchase any such interest. A *conservation restriction* may be so drawn as to accomplish major urban open space protection in perpetuity while leaving the property on the tax rolls with an infinitely varied degree of development rights.
5. Boston Urban Wilds sites can be partially protected by the following available *land-use regulations*. Such partial protection should always be supplemented by other methods to insure long-term protection of an Urban Wilds site.
   a) *The Wetlands Protection Act* (Massachusetts General Laws, Ch. 131, Sec. 40, as amended) regulates the filling, dredging, or altering of inland and coastal wetlands, riverbanks, ocean shorelines, beaches, tidal flats, and salt meadows. Under the statute any developer or governmental agency wishing to alter any such area in Boston must first receive approval from the Boston Conservation Commission.
   b) *Floodplain zoning*, currently being considered by the city of Boston, will be applicable to areas subject to tidal action or flooding. Farming, conservation, and outdoor recreation will be the only land uses permitted as of right in a "Flood Hazard District."
   c) The provisions of *Planned Development Area (PDA) Zoning*—which can be applied to a site of an acre (.4 ha) or more—may offer protection to some of the most outstanding natural features of a site about to be built upon or otherwise developed. In Boston, the PDA may permit cluster building at high densities in return for a variety of trade-offs.
6. If no other means are available, an Urban Wilds site or any natural area can be taken by the city of Boston from any landowner by vote of the City Council under its power of *eminent domain*, for any of the stated public purposes. Occasionally, in the past, the city of Boston has taken land by eminent domain for conservation purposes, where the title to the acquired land was in doubt.

One of the conservation methods recommended in the Urban Wilds report was implemented just as the report was published. The city's Real Property Department transferred to the Boston Conservation Commission 13 Urban Wilds sites for maintenance and preservation. The sites covered 11.5 acres (4.6 ha) in five different neighborhoods and included a significant number of rock outcroppings, an outstanding variety of trees, and many scenic views.

Boston Natural Areas Fund

Because of limited city capital funds available for purchase of privately-owned acreage, a new non-profit vehicle by which the private sector raises funds to aid the Boston Conservation Commission in land acquisition has been established. The Boston Natural Areas Fund is a separate account within the 15-year-old Fund for the Preservation of Wildlife and Natural Areas at the Boston Safe Deposit and Trust Company, and shares its parent's tax-deductability. The BNAF has received grants from four major local foundations and this month received a follow-up grant of $20,000

from the National Endowment for the Arts for appraisals purchase money. This grant was awarded because the Fund is actually carrying out the recommendations in the September, 1976 BRA Boston Urban Wilds report, which was the product of a 1974 grant of $50,000 by NEA to BRA.

Two gifts of land—one of 8 acres (3.2 ha) one of 2½ acres (1 ha)—have been given to the Fund. These will be transferred by the Fund to the B.C.C. The Fund will continue to seek both gifts of land in fee or conservation restrictions, as recommended, as well as money for land purchases.

Spreading the Word

The Urban Wilds project, while aimed at formulating public policy to protect sites from development, also concerned itself with informing the public that these areas exist and that they are readily accessible to the public.

This phase of the project involved production of an attractive illustrated poster which depicted the Urban Wilds sites. The poster also contained a brief description of 49 sites and gave instructions on how these sites could be reached by using public transportation.

The poster was supplemented by a 56-page booklet which was richly illustrated by page after page of four-color photographs of Urban Wilds sites and also set out the findings and the recommended conservation strategy.

There was no charge for the poster. Widespread publicity (and editorial support) for the Urban Wilds project generated requests for the poster from thousands of people who were eager to explore Boston's Urban Wilds.

The end result was that the level of consciousness as concerns Urban Wilds in Boston was dramatically heightened by the study and the public education program which accompanied it.

To a lot of people it seemed that Boston had suddenly discovered its precious heritage of unspoiled and undeveloped natural areas. To many of those involved in the Urban Wilds project it seemed only that Boston was once again paying strict heed to tradition

Ralph Memolo is Public Information Officer at the Boston Redevelopment Authority.

Improving Access to the Parks

by The Honorable Harrison A. Williams, Jr.

In 1958, the Congress established the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission to study and report on our nation's recreational needs and resources through the year 2000. One of the major conclusions of the Commission's report was that "outdoor opportunities are most urgently needed near metropolitan areas."

Until that time, federal efforts to preserve open space for recreation had focused on the vast public lands of the West, where only a small minority of the population was. As the Director of the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation (now Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service) pointed out a few years later, *only 25 percent of our nation's recreational facilities and 3 percent of our recreational lands were accessible to the cities, where 75 percent of the people lived.* Most urban residents could only dream of the Yellowstones and the Yosemites.

While this imbalance persists, we have begun to see the results of a new federal effort to bring parks closer to people. In the 1970s, units have been added to the National Park System that are astonishingly close to major cities. Gateway National Recreation Area on the fringes of New York City, Golden Gate near San Francisco, Indiana Dunes near Chicago, and Cuyahoga Valley near Cleveland have added a new dimension to federal land conservation efforts. No longer were the satisfactions of nature hours away for urban Americans.

Inequality of Access

But for many, the nearness of these splendid new parks has simply increased their frustration. They still need a car to get there. While millions of dollars are being spent to develop the urban recreation areas, not a penny is provided for public access. Thus, for the 57 percent of New Yorkers who do not have cars, Gateway might as well be in Wyoming.

The 1976 statement for management of Gateway stated it succinctly: "No amount of planning and development at Gateway will correct the present inequalities of who can visit the park unless efforts are made to provide efficient transportation to the park from all parts of the region."

We know the people for whom the appeal of the new parks remains an

Few public transportation systems are geared to recreational use.

unfulfilled promise. They are the elderly, for whom leisure is often a euphemism for nothing to do. They are the young, in need of the challenge of the outdoors. They are the poor and the handicapped, denied access to their heritage of natural lands.

Visitor surveys at Golden Gate National Recreation Area confirm that the least mobile groups—the carless and the elderly—visit the park the least. Moreover, in the 21 cities sampled by the Interior Department for its 1978 National Urban Recreation Study, low-income neighborhoods had the poorest access to recreation areas. A major finding of this study was that:

"Accessibility is one of the keys to the effective use of park and recreation resources. People want park and recreation facilities within safe walking distance from home. They also want access to regional parks which have more varied natural environments. If close-to-home recreation is unavailable, access to other facilities becomes even more important."

The problem is that current public transportation systems are not geared to recreational use. Routes and schedules are designed to meet the needs of people going to work or shopping, not to parks. During times of peak demand for recreational use—weekends and holidays—public transportation is often cut back or eliminated. Overall, the urban study found that: "Less than 10 percent of all cities sampled provide

National Park Service

adequate public transportation to regional park and recreation areas. Although acquisition and development of these areas are often justified on the basis of 'serving recreation needs,' many inner-city residents cannot use such areas on a regular basis because of transportation problems."

Existing urban mass transportation facilities have failed to bridge the gap between these urban residents and the national parks designed to serve them. Until means of access other than by car are provided, the promise of the urban parks will remain unfulfilled.

In the absence of alternatives, ninety to ninety-five percent of visitors to the National Park System arrive by car. State and regional parks probably exhibit similar percentages. This reliance on automobiles for park access is actually perpetuated by current federal policy. For the federal government subsidizes automobile access by paying the full cost of construction and maintenance of highways leading to national parks. No similar assistance is provided for alternative modes of access.

Mounting Auto Menaces

Besides being discriminatory, policies which require visitors to the parks to rely on cars adversely affect the parks, the visitors, and nearby communities. This is true of both the urban parks and the more traditional rural parks. Extensive use of cars and their accompanying fumes, noise, and litter, can damage the fragile ecosystems which the parks are designed to protect. More and more precious parkland must be paved over for roads and parking lots to accommodate the increasing number of cars. Indeed, the capacity of the park becomes dependent upon the number of cars it can absorb, rather than the number of people. Traffic congestion strains access roads beyond their capacity, placing an unfair burden on adjacent communities. It also detracts considerably from the visitor's enjoyment of the park.

These problems will surely get worse as visitation increases. Since 1960, visitation to the National Park System alone has nearly quadrupled, and continues to climb. In some areas, the present means of access simply cannot continue. At Gateway, for example, visitation is expected to exceed the capacity of existing access roads by as much as 200 percent by the year 1990.

Furthermore, the exclusive use of cars for park access is contrary to our nation's energy goals. It is difficult to imagine a less energy-efficient means of getting to parks than in bumper-to-bumper traffic.

Viable Alternatives

For all these reasons, we need to develop, provide, and promote alternatives to the automobile for travel to and within our parks.

The National Park Service already has instituted public transportation services within the boundaries of certain parks. In some cases, these have been accompanied by restraints on the use of private vehicles. At Yosemite National Park (CA), double-decker buses and open-air trams replace cars for circulation in some areas of the park. At Fort Matanzas National Monument (FL), a small ferry boat takes people from the visitor center to the Fort. School buses are used for getting around at Mount McKinley National Park (AK). These and similar services at other parks have met with wide public approval. When combined with interpretive programs, they can provide a high-quality educational and recreational experience.

But the Park Service does not have the authority to provide for such services *to* parks. While some improvements in access have been made through consultation with public and private transit operators, much more could be done without major expenditure if the Park Service had the requisite authority.

In some cases, only minor modifications in existing commuter an intercity passenger services would be needed. At Golden Gate National Recreation Area, for example, present bus and ferry routes could be extende and their schedules adjusted to accommodate recreational users. More frequent Amtrak stops at Glacier National Park, one of the few great pa still served by train, would encourage more people to use this mode of acces

In other cases, shuttle bus service could be instituted from transit termin or outlying parking lots to points with the park. A park-and-ride service at Ca Cod (MA), for example, could reduce t need for parking lots on National Seashore lands. Shuttle buses could be used to link Mount Rushmore Nationa Memorial (SD) to Rapid City.

New and more imaginative means o access could help to lure potential visit away from their cars. Ferry service at Gateway and rail service at Indiana Dunes and Cuyahoga could make publ transit to those parks more attractive.

Outreach programs, combined with innovative fares, services, and equipme designs, could be geared to bringing special populations—the elderly, the handicapped, inner-city children, and non-English-speaking people—to the parks. Non-motorized means of access bicycling, horseback riding, cross-country skiing, and walking—could be encouraged and facilitated at minimal cost.

These access modes could then be linked with internal transit services, th eliminating the need for cars for travel and within the National Park System.

Public Support

Public awareness of these new programs and services would be the ke to their success. Posters and brochures transit terminals and other public plac articles in newspapers and periodicals, television and radio spots, and public speaker programs could help to let peo know that they do not need a car to vi the parks. The extent of such informational efforts and the services themselves would, of course, be dependent upon the environmental an recreational limits of the parks.

pen-air trams shuttle visitors around parts of Yosemite National Park (CA), but mass transit access to the park is cking.

egislation

To test the feasibility of these lternative modes of access, I have ntroduced legislation which would uthorize the Secretary of the Interior to ndertake a three-year pilot program. nder the bill, the Secretary would plan nd implement transportation projects or units of the National Park System by he Interior Department's contracting ith public or private agencies to provide ervices or by providing the services self. Other relevant federal department eads, such as the Secretary of ransportation, would assist the ecretary in developing these projects. State and local governments and the ublic would participate throughout the anning process, through hearings and nsultation.

At the end of the three-year period, the Secretary would report to Congress on the effectiveness of the pilot program and submit recommendations for further transportation projects.

A total of $6 million would be authorized for the pilot program, with $1 million authorized the first year, $2 million the second, and $3 million the third. An expenditure of over $100,000 on any one project would have to be reported to the appropriate Congressional committees prior to implementation.

At this writing, the bill, S. 975, had passed the Senate and was awaiting action by the House. I am hopeful that by the time this edition of *Trends* reaches its readers, the bill will have become law, thereby helping to protect the parks, while giving more people the opportunity to enjoy them.

The Honorable Harrison A. Williams, Jr., is the junior U.S. Senator from the state of New Jersey.

Seattle Park Bridges a Freeway

by Lou Anne Kirby

"Now we have Freeway Park, it's hard to imagine what downtown Seattle was like without it." Those words from Seattle Mayor Charles Royer have been echoed many times in the two years since the park opened. "It belongs," is the way one office worker summed it up.

The park has matured rapidly. Trees and shrubs chosen for their hardiness and pollution tolerance have become well established. Flowering shrubs, a variety of colorful bulbs, and profuse displays of annuals keep the park alive with color through most of the year.

Featured attractions year-round are the four water elements dominated by the canyon where water falls at the rate of 27,000 gallons (102,600 l) a minute from a height of 20 feet (6 m). The canyon occupies the recess between the north and southbound lanes of the freeway. A window, curtained by falling water provides the visitor with an orientation to the otherwise unseen freeway. Other water elements are the plaza cascade where splashing and wading are encouraged, the American Legion Fountain in the east plaza, and the Naramore Fountain.

Walter R. Hundley, Superintendent of the Seattle Department of Parks and Recreation, feels the most important thing about any park is to meet the needs of the people it is intended to serve.

"At Freeway Park, you see all kinds of people," he said. "For the folks who live in the apartments on First Hill—many of them retired folk—this is their neighborhood park. They come here to stroll, and stop to chat with our gardeners and maybe give them a word or two of advice. It's a place they can visit with their friends and bring their grandchildren when they come to visit."

The five-acre (2 ha) park is popular with office workers as a place to get a breath of fresh air, have lunch, and visit with friends. Those lucky enough to have a view of the park from their office windows can look down on trees, shrubbery, and cascading water instead of asphalt, concrete, and parked cars.

While the park gets lots of use year-round, it is especially popular in summertime. An estimated 3,000 people a day visit the park during the midday

Seattle Parks and Recreation Department

In Seattle, a five acre (2 ha) park bridges Interstate 5, providing a respite of contrasts and surprises.

For residents of nearby apartments, it's a neighborhood park; for office workers, a pleasant place to lunch and converse.

period from 11 a.m. to 2 p.m. on summer weekdays. The Parks Department schedules noon concerts every Tuesday for a 10-week "Music in the Parks" season in June, July, and August which attracts near-capacity crowds to the paved central plaza.

Last September, the full Seattle Symphony Orchestra played an unprecedented outdoor "Brown Bag in the Park" concert, and the event was so well received the Seattle Downtown Development Association hopes to make it an annual event. This year's concert is scheduled for September 15, and will feature performances at noon and 1:15 p.m.

A Cooperative Venture

The idea for a downtown park over the freeway originated while the freeway was still under construction. By the time the last link of Interstate 5 through the city was completed in 1966, public-spirited individuals and city, county, and state officials already were talking of a lid and park over the freeway to restore the link between First Hill and downtown.

Architects Paul Thiry, Floyd A. Naramore, and Perry Johanson, and attorney James R. Ellis, were among those concerned about the environmental effects the freeway was bound to have on the city. They were also concerned because Seattle had no major downtown passive open space. At the same time, developer R. C. Hedreen was investigating sites for construction of the 21-story Park Place Building.

The city also was looking for a development site for its municipal parking garage. A location near the freeway was essential so the garage could intercept traffic on its way to the business core and thus reduce downtown congestion, noise, and air pollution.

Seattle's Freeway Park grew out of these separate but overlapping objectives. The completed complex includes two bridges covering more than 400 feet (120 m) of freeway, the 630-car municipal garage, the park itself, and the Park Place building and its associated parking garage.

Two things happened early in the planning stages to make the project possible. The voters of King County approved $334 million in Forward Thrust bond resolutions in 1968, providing $65 million for parks and park facilities in Seattle. Then—largely through the efforts of George Andrews, then Director of the State Highway Department—federal and state highway funds were secured to finance construction of a lid over the freeway between Seneca and University Streets. Later, additional highway funds were added for a second lid south of Seneca. The Naramore Fountain, designed by George Tsutakawa and given to the city June 13, 1967 by the late Floyd A. Naramore, was relandscaped and made an integral part of the park.

Through a unique three-party agreement between the city, the state, and the private developer, the separate projects were integrated. Public areas around the privately developed Park Place Building blend almost indistinguishably with the park.

Financial Benefits

Because the park primarily occupies air space over the highway and highway rights of way—property already in the public domain—acquisition costs estimated at $45 a square foot (.09m²) largely were avoided, and the park did not remove property from the tax rolls.

More than that, enhanced by the park, the Park Place Building enjoys a 95 percent occupancy rate. Before the project was started, the properties now occupied by the Freeway Park, the Park

Noontime concerts are summer attractions at Freeway Park

Seattle Parks and Recreation Department

Nature's power balances man's as cascading waterfall subdues sounds of the freeway below.

Place Building and the two parking garages paid a total of less than $50,000 a year in property taxes. The property tax yield now exceeds $175,000 a year.

The park continues to serve as a catalyst spurring additional development. For example, a new 33-story, 434-guest hotel is under construction on the corner of Sixth and Seneca across the street from the park, and another major development is now in the planning stages. This will be an apartment complex adjacent to the park on the east.

A first-class restaurant featuring Japanese cuisine recently opened on the plaza level of Park Place Building with windows opening on the cascade area of the park.

All this means added tax dollars for Seattle as well as a healthier and more vital downtown. "Friends of Freeway Park," a group of downtown business firms have contributed a substantial fund to provide for colorful annual plantings in the park without imposing a financial burden on the city budget.

Located between 6th and 9th Avenues and bounded on the north by Union Street and the south by Spring Street, the park overlooks the largest financial center in the northwestern United States. The area has a dozen buildings of 10 stories or more, most with financial institutions as their major tenants. Government offices cluster to the south and the retail core is a few blocks to the northwest.

First Hill to the east accommodates a mixture of apartment buildings, retirement homes, hospitals, and churches.

Contrasts and Surprises

The park itself possesses the kind of grandeur one usually associates only with natural wonders. It encompasses many moods and balances the extremes of dynamic motion and peaceful reflections. Square elements, boxy overhangs, and neat terraces reflect the shapes and textures of the surrounding city. Concrete surfaces bear the imprint of the milled timbers used as forms.

Yet as you stand in the canyon with the thunder of falling water in your ears, your imagination suggests you have come upon a natural cascade hidden in the mountains.

The freeway has been muted, its power and scale matched by the natural force of churning water.

Away from the canyon, grassy retreats and unexpected spaces open among the concrete cliffs. Small spaces restore a sense of human proportion; shrubs, trees, and grass create softness and a sense of belonging. Occasionally the city reasserts itself and architectural details outside the park demand attention—a row of arched windows, the geometry of a downtown tower, the white dome of a church, or the arch of the 8th Avenue overcrossing.

In the east plaza above the garage, an irregular path skips across a grassy meadow. Yet, the freeway has not been left behind. The roof deck affords a vantage overlooking 10 lanes of traffic.

Traffic surges along the concrete riverbed below, carrying an average of 133,290 vehicles a day during the week. At peak periods, more than 13,000 cars an hour pass through Seattle on I-5, making it the busiest single highway in the state. From this unprotected prow, you feel the wind and weather, and the freeway noise thunders up at you. To the south, the rectangular blocks of the park march down the grade, anchored at University Street by the Park Place Building.

Freeway Park is filled with contrasts and surprises. Sometimes noisy and dramatic, sometimes calm and peaceful, it brings a new range of experience to Seattle's already diverse downtown.

Lawrence Halprin & Associates of San Francisco were the park architects with Angela Danadjieva as park designer. Edward MacLeod & Associates of Seattle created the landscape plan. The freeway bridges were designed and constructed by the Washington State Highway Department, and Naramore, Bain, Brady and Johnson designed the municipal parking garage.

Lou Anne Kirby is Public Information Coordinator for the Seattle (WA) Parks and Recreation Department.

Preserving Special Landscapes

by Donald W. Humphrey

It's time for a new approach to save our urban landscapes.

On October 27, 1972 a legislative happening occurred that sent shock waves through the park and conservation community. Gateway and Golden Gate National Recreation Areas were established by the Congress of the United States. Firmly imbedded in the New York metropolitan area, Gateway, composed of beaches, marshes, surplus federal land, and other public lands and waters around the mouth of New York harbor, along with Golden Gate, in San Francisco, set a precedent that begged replication in other urban regions of the nation.

It does not matter that these two parks were outgrowths of President Nixon's Legacy of Parks program—a program designed to turn over surplus federal land to state and local park agencies. It does not matter that politics crept into the decision to make them federal areas—politics is our process of doing things and it is involved in every park proposal. What does matter is that the federal government made a direct commitment to acquisition, development, and management of parks in American cities, and, that in the process, significant open space was protected for posterity in two of the nation's most concentrated urban areas.

Replication occurred on December 27, 1974 when the Cuyahoga Valley National Recreation Area, between Cleveland and Akron, Ohio, was established. The legislation for the Cuyahoga Valley was subject to some interesting debate in the Congress. On the one hand the argument was made that Ohio did not have a major National Park System area. On the other, there was concern expressed that the Congress was proceeding on a course for which no guiding policy had been clearly enunciated, a course which would affect the National Park Service, the Federal Treasury, the political process, and the roles of federal, state, and local governments in providing urban recreation.

The controversy was deep and it affected not only the Congress but the Administration and the Department of the Interior. The Administration in 1970 had suppressed Secretary Hickel's Nationwide Outdoor Recreation Plan which had a strong urban orientation and which had an estimated price tag of six billion dollars. The Department's position on Cuyahoga was that it was a state responsibility, that sizeable amounts of federal matching grants had been made to the state through the Land and Water Conservation Fund (LWCF), and that Gateway and Golden Gate were pilot projects, not to be replicated. The Department did not prevail and President Ford signed the legislation two days after Christmas, 1974.

The Urban Recreation Study

In spite of the passage of Cuyahoga Valley NRA, the Congress did not follow with a rash of urban NRA s, though legislation for a number of areas was introduced. The Congress was concerned; and it did want answers. In amending the LWCF in 1976 (P.L. 94-422), it mandated a study of urban recreation needs. Section 12 of the Act states:

"Within one year of the date of enactment of this section, the Secretary is authorized and directed to submit to the Committees on Interior and Insular Affairs of the Senate and House of Representatives a comprehensive review and report on the needs, problems, and opportunities associated with urban recreation in highly populated regions, including the resources potentially available for meeting such needs."

"The report shall include site specific analyses and alternatives, in a selection of geographic environments representative of the nation as a whole, including, but not limited to, information on needs, local capabilities for action, major site opportunities, trends, and a full range of options and alternatives as to possible solutions and courses of action designed to preserve remaining open space, ameliorate recreational deficiency, and enhance recreational opportunity for urban populations, together with an analysis of the capability of the federal government to provide urban-oriented environmental education programs (including, but not limited to, cultural programs in the arts and crafts) within such options."

"The Secretary shall consult with, and request the views of, the affected cities, counties, and states on the alternatives and courses of action identified."

That study, the results of which are contained in a compendium of over 20 volumes, has been submitted to the Congress and is itself, as might be expected, the subject of considerable controversy and debate. However, it contains not recommendations, but options, and thereby leaves decision-making to the public involvement and political processes.

The Plight of Urban Open Space

The options contained in the *Urban Recreation Study, Executive Report* relate to 1 Federal recreation policy, 2) Open space and recreation lands, 3) Federal financin of recreation and 4) Federal programs affecting recreation. We are concerned here only with the open space findings. Generally, these are that:

- Landscapes of outstanding ecological, scenic, cultural, historic, and recreational importance are being degraded and lost through inadequately directed development an growth.
- Traditionally, protection of such landscapes has been by direct public acquisition and management. This policy eliminates private land ownerships, may adversely affect the area's economic base, and is not cost-effective.

Within the constraints of limited funding there is a need to develop a consistent federal policy for protection of these outstanding landscapes which can be applied equitably nationwide.

There is a need to establish a partnership between the federal government, state and local governments and the private sector so that each performs its most effective role in developing and implementing conservation strategies to protect threatened landscapes.

There is a need to provide for the development and implementation of comprehensive management strategies that are carefully crafted to the particular circumstances and conditions of each area using a variety of existing conservation tools (acquisition, taxation, and regulation), and making the most effective use of existing local, state, and federal legislation and programs.

The Question of Money

It became clear in the course of the study that the array of significant remaining open spaces in and near urban areas could not reasonably be protected through fee-simple acquisition alone. This is succinctly stated in "Green-line Parks: An Approach to Preserving Recreational Landscapes in Urban Areas," prepared by the Congressional Research Service of the Library of Congress in 1975.

"More money is, of course, needed. But the amount that might be authorized is unlikely to meet the need . . . even if policy makers were perfectly sure what the need really is. What is required is to get more leverage from the money that may realistically be available, and to take a look at 'needs' in a way that becomes part of the solution rather than part of the problem. A $100 billion "Buy Back America" approach may have a certain amount of rhetorical charm, but few would suggest that today's priorities, focused as they are on the energy-economy issue, would put the purchase of America for parks very high on the national agenda."

Nonetheless, the amount of money that might be available for urban parks is hard to define. President Carter's urban policy contains a proposal for a five-year $150 million annual federal matching grant program for the rehabilitation of urban parks. The Land and Water Conservation Fund is authorized at $900, million a year through 1989. The federal share is to be not less than 40 percent of this per year or $360 million annually for eleven years (about 4 billion dollars). Of course the fund can be extended and/or the authorization increased. Nevertheless, at present, estimates for federal land acquisition for already authorized areas is $1.8 billion and existing proposals likely to be legislated will run to over $2 billion. This nearly equals the federal 40 percent share of the authorized amount in the LWCF through 1989 and does not take into account new park proposals that will be made over the next eleven years.

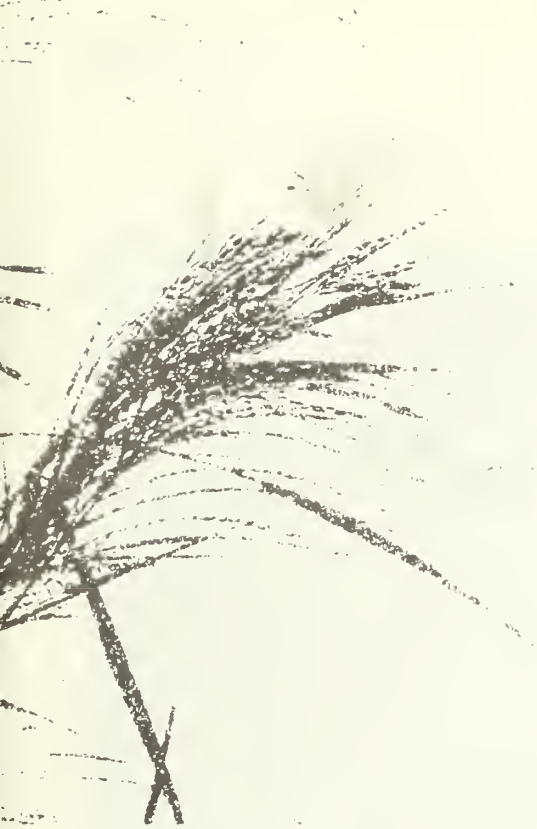
The Land and Water Conservation Fund must in one sense be regarded as part of the problem. It exists and it contains large amounts of money which can be spent on fee acquisition of land (obviously the simplest and most straightforward way of protecting park and recreation resources). Furthermore, if a federal area is established, the cost to the state and local governments is essentially nil. The problem is compounded, however, when park proposals are put forward to protect landscapes that are being threatened and altered by inadequately directed or controlled growth. Land use regulation in all states except Hawaii is primarily the responsibility of local governments through powers devolved to them by the states. Nonetheless, a number of states are regaining these powers for areas of critical concern. Furthermore, a multitude of federal programs provide money for activities affecting the integrity of the kinds of special landscapes being discussed here. So all levels of government are involved, each in their own special way, in protecting — or failing to protect — values of special landscapes subjected to pressures of growth.

A Matter of Attitude

Another part of the problem is an attitude strongly prevalent in the United

States, that to protect the values of a landscape, fee acquisition is the only effective mechanism. Thus a polarity is created. Land within a park is given total protection, land outside of and adjacent to a park may receive little or no protection. It is this condition, in part, that resulted in the expansion of Redwoods National Park (CA), an increase of 48,000 acres (19,200 ha) at a cost of $360 million for land acquisition alone, not to mention costs of assistance to people in the Redwoods area thrown out of work by the park expansion. It is this inability or unwillingness to control activities on lands adjacent to parks that has resulted in the phenomenon of "ever expanding boundaries"—the acquisition of buffer areas to protect the core resource.

This polarity need not exist; it is far less common in European democracies. Indeed, the English National Parks (which comprise 10 percent of the country) are largely private lands. These "living landscapes" draw their beauty in part from the harmonious relationship of human activities to the land. The Adirondack State Park in New York is a somewhat similar situation. In an area of 6 million acres (2,400 ha), 65 percent is privately owned land, carefully regulated and controlled to protect the inherent qualities of the Adirondack landscape



Reserves—Do They Fit the Problem?

In an attempt to deal with these landscape preservation problems, a number of innovative thinkers, legislators, and planners have put their heads together and tenuously developed a new approach to land use planning . . . a method of protecting special landscapes that has come to be known variously as Greenline Parks, National Reserves, and Areas of National Concern. The term National Reserves, or simply Reserves, is used in this paper. What are they?

A Reserve may be defined as a special landscape of sufficient size and importance to be judged outstanding in terms of its ecological, scenic, cultural, historic, or recreational values.

A Reserve contains an intermixture of private and public lands managed in such a way that the identified values of that landscape are protected.

A Reserve not only protects landscape values but also facilitates certain private economic activities within Reserve boundaries which are commensurate with the protection of those values and are a part of the Reserve's living landscape.

A benefit of the Reserve approach is that, in each case, a determination is made on the lands that need to be acquired for resource protection and public use and on those lands where other protective techniques are applicable. In the latter instances, land remains on the tax rolls, people live on the land, and certain continued land uses (such as agriculture) contribute to the economic vitality of the area.

Precedents

It is one thing to define a Reserve, it is quite another thing to establish one. Apart from the Adirondack State Park and the English National Parks, are there any precedents that can point the way? William Duddleson of the Conservation Foundation in the Open Space Report of the National Urban Recreation Study identified 10 units of the National Park System and a National Forest NRA that have some elements of a Reserve for control of private land use within park boundaries or joint federal-state-local cooperation. To this list could be added the Redwoods National Park expansion which includes a 28,000 acre (11,200 ha) buffer area of private land around the park.

It is interesting to note that these 10 National Park System areas date back only to 1962 when the Congress began authorizing large amounts of public money for the acquisition of privately-owned land for park use, first on Cape Cod, then elsewhere. Because these parks were carved out of living landscapes, even after the passage of the LWCF Act in 1964, acquisition was not relied on as the sole means of assuring protection of the resource. Aside from the expense, it would have been politically impossible.

In the Pictured Rocks National Lakeshore (MI), for instance, there is a public shoreline zone protecting the outstanding beaches, dunes and cliffs, and adjacent lands. An inland zone comprising 2/3 of the Lakeshore is privately-owned land dedicated to continued use for sustained-yield forestry.

Proposed Legislation

Legislation has been introduced in Congress for at least 13 other areas that have some Reserve characteristics. The proposed Pine Barrens National Ecological Reserve Bill (HR 6625), introduced by Representative Florio of New Jersey, is the pioneer bill that well exemplifies the Reserve concept. In addition, legislation recently introduced for the Potomac River by Senator Charles Mathias of Maryland (S 2888), and Representative Joseph Fisher of Virginia (HR 12663), contains many of the elements of a Reserve.

A Generic Approach

Senators Harrison Williams and Clifford Case of New Jersey, in addressing the Pine Barrens as a Reserve went one step further and drafted a generic legislation for a National System of Reserves. A carefully written document, it is almost certain to be the point of departure for any consideration by Congress of a national system of landscape protection.

Specifically a National Reserve System would be a mechanism through which the Congress and the Administration offer incentives to state, regional, and local entities to prepare and implement cost-effective management strategies to protect outstanding natural and cultural areas. This approach could be applied to those areas which, because of their size, complexity, and expense, require consideration and careful crafting of all applicable conservation strategies to most effectively ensure their protection.

National Reserves System legislation would:

- Establish a national policy to preserve certain outstanding landscapes
- Provide a means of determining whether a candidate area merits consideration for inclusion in the System
- Provide planning assistance to state and local governments to prepare comprehensive strategies for the protection and management of potential National Reserve areas
- Provide for the exploration of all options to develop the most cost-effective strategy to achieve the goals established for each area
- Permit the strategies to be carefully crafted to local conditions
- Place a moratorium on federal activities that would adversely affect the candidate area during the planning period

National Park Service

Will New Jersey's unique Pine Barrens become a pioneer National Reserve?

- Allow the Congress to include an area in the National Reserve System after a thorough strategy has been prepared
- Direct all federal programs to be consistent with the goals of a National Reserve component, and to whatever extent possible, to further these goals
- Motivate and provide for vigorous private-sector involvement and participation in the development of conservation strategies within the Reserve boundaries
- Use, in preparing a protection strategy, all possible legal tools—taxation, regulatory powers, less-than-fee acquisition, federal, state, and local programs, and, where necessary, acquisition—to meet established goals and policies for the protection of landscape values

Imperatives For Success

The foregoing is based largely on the Williams-Case bill (S 2306). Interested readers should refer to this bill for more details on how a Reserve System might work. Several imperatives logically underlie the success of such a Reserve. First, there must be a local or regional will to protect an area. Second, a comprehensive plan or strategy must be prepared to inform political decision-makers before hard and fast positions are taken. Third, there must be a state or local managing agency empowered to enforce the plan; and fourth, there must be federal oversight, including sanctions, to protect federal investments in a Reserve if the managing agency fails to adhere to the approved plan.

Since Reserves are "living landscapes," the management strategy must be flexible enough to allow for change as long as agreed upon Reserve objectives are met. This means a continuing process of public review is needed, and an analysis of the environmental, social, and economic consequences of changes must be factored into the decision-making process.

As of summer 1978, when this article was prepared, what is the status of Reserve legislation? As mentioned previously, legislation containing Reserve characteristics has been prepared for the New Jersey Pine Barrens, the Potomac River, the Santa Monica Mountains, and at least 10 other areas. The Administration has taken a position on the Santa Monica Mountains. Hearings have not been held on the Williams-Case bill.

Areas of National Concern—A New Program?

The Administration's position on the Santa Monica Mountains is instructive in predicting where it may stand on future legislation. At Senate Hearings on May 5, 1978 on S 1906, a bill to establish the Channel Islands and Santa Monica National Park and Seashore, Assistant Secretary of Interior, Robert Herbst came out against federal management. Instead he said, in part:

"We are recommending the enactment of substitute legislation to establish a new program which relies on a mixture of state and local land use planning coupled with federal participation via financial and technical assistance. We are recommending legislation that would encourage the maximum use of state and local planning procedures, provide federal financial assistance for state and local land acquisition, and protect the integrity of this resource from adverse federal actions."

"Upon approval and implementation of a Comprehensive Plan, federal funds will be available to state and local units on a 75/25 matching basis, for the acquisition of park and natural resource protection related lands, consistent with the standards of the Land and Water Conservation Fund Act. In Santa Monica, the federal government would make available a total of $125 million for this purpose."

"The Secretary feels very strongly that in the establishment of Santa Monica as an Area of National Concern, we are entering into a special partnership with the state and local governmental units involved. This partnership must be based on a mutual desire to protect the resource. We are firm in the position that *no* federal dollars can be spent on an area unless the state and local governments are committed by being willing to put up their end of the match and to implement appropriate zoning and land use regulation measures."

In summary, the Reserve concept has come a long way since its public debut in "Green-line Parks" in 1975. However, a Reserve, as such, does not exist and the concept is not yet widely understood or accepted. Some conservationists see it as an inadequate substitute for parks, that is, for fee acquisition. They tend to distrust local government where land regulation is involved and they would rather see the federal government managing an area than a state. Nevertheless, organizations like the National Park and Conservation Association are already on record as being in support of the concept. Because each Reserve would be individually crafted, with public involvement during the plan preparation phase, the Reserve System would not constitute a patent solution but rather a unique product of a thought process that requires answers to three questions:

- What do we wish to protect?
- How can this best be done?
- Who will be responsible to see that it is done?

In effect, then, the Reserve concept represents a kind of planning process which answers these questions on a case-by-case basis. As such, it can be applied to any area. This is the view of the National Park Service, which has revised its new area study process to look at the full range of protection and management alternatives for every new area proposal on which it is requested to do a study.

Donald W. Humphrey is with the Office of Planning and Development, National Park Service.

The City Park

by August Heckscher

There's still something for almost everyone in New York City's Central Park.

"To moralize, uplift, revitalize." This was the purpose the fathers of America's central parks gave for the creation of our original inner-city open spaces.

August Heckscher, a former New York City Parks Commissioner, in his provocative book OPEN SPACES: The Life of American Cities *(Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc.), details the strengths and weaknesses of existing urban spaces, from town squares to park systems to downtown areas, and suggests new possibilities for more livable and dynamic urban environments. From cover to cover, the book is filled with interesting and enlightening facts and examples—invaluable background material for all park and recreation agencies trying to meet urban challenges! Mr. Heckscher's chapter, "The City Park," provides fascinating insights into the origins and development of urban parkland.*

Beginning in the latter half of the 19th century, Mr. Heckscher points out, the need for a pastoral setting—a release from the tensions of crowded urban life—was recognized in the major metropolitan areas of the country. Unlike Europe, where parks were seen as amenities, America's central parks, located in downtown areas, were seen as necessary for moral *survival—to save city dwellers by giving them an easy access to nature.*

"A grand park within the reach of every citizen would do more in preventing disturbances and vice than half the sermons preached," and would "keep away the poor and the young from temptations scattered all about them," wrote a San Francisco editor in the mid-nineteenth century.

In addition to providing a "Walden for the masses," central parks tended to give economic stimulus. Property values rapidly increased around those open spaces, benefiting the city proper and its citizens.

The romantic vision of large central parks was accepted and utilized throughout the century. Other large parks in cities could have specialized uses . . . such as sport centers, nature preserves, recreational facilities. But the central parks were mixed in use and multiple in appeal. At best they mirrored nature and offered a choice *of cultural and recreational diversion. They were open to all ages, races, economic backgrounds. They were born of and reflected their cities and the character and conditions of the people.*

From the beginning, strong conflicts arose surrounding the philosophy of central parks. The rapidly changing nature of our metropolitan areas brought pressures on these havens to change also. The original ideal of the central park was to provide an escape from the city—to render the city "invisible." Yet, more and more, people began to demand special forms of recreation—golf courses, beaches, ice-rinks, athletic fields. The hope for rural quiet and pastoral serenity could not survive the radically changing society that surrounded these parks. And slowly, through either neglect or public pressure, the original, carefully planned oases came to be more and more an extension of, rather than an escape from, the cities.

To better understand the development and metamorphosis of the central park, TRENDS *reprints below, with permission, Mr. Heckscher's profiles of three historic parks which were begun in the 1800s. Their stories are representative of the goals, pressures, problems, and future solutions our city parks are now examining in depth.*

It is obvious from these profiles that today's central parks are suffering the strain of adapting to new conditions. The gap between their original purpose and their present-day situation is widening. The results of this strain have in some cases resulted in over-development or in under-use . . . in vandalism or the invasion of highways and municipal parking lots. But nowhere is there serious consideration for surrendering the parkland or abandoning its green oasis to urban development.

NEW YORK CITY'S CENTRAL PARK

No choice exists but to begin with Central Park in New York City. This was the first large-scale park created in this country. Its impact upon other cities was immediate. Its principal designer, Frederick Law Olmsted, became a national figure, calling into being a new species of park-builder. Central Park presents today the whole range of problems with which authorities in other cities are contending. . . .

Central Park does not stand isolated: At its northern end there is a series of topographic features that could, if the links were developed, make it part of an extended chain of green spaces. Within a few hundred yards (meters), Morningside Park begins, running along the ridge that also underlies Colonial Park. Directly north of Central Park, Cathedral Parkway runs westward to Riverside Park. . . .

At its southern end Central Park opens into a different kind of urban space—especially where the Grand Army Plaza leads to Fifth Avenue and down toward Rockefeller Center.

Two other important aspects of the situation of Central Park need to be noted.

First is the encircling ring of major cultural institutions. The Metropolitan Museum of Art has been in the park since its establishment in 1870. The Museum of Natural History is on parkland just outside the park's borders. To the west are Lincoln Center and the New York Historical Society; on the east, the Guggenheim Museum faces the park, while the Whitney is a block away. The strong affinity between parks and cultural institutions is thus expressed, while a minimum of Central Park land is made use of.

Second is the way in which diverse neighborhoods surround the park. To the south are outstanding hotels and commercial developments. To the north, centering on Mount Morris, is Harlem. Two more different communities, both feeding into the park, could hardly be imagined. The east and west sides have also long been dissimilar in economic and social characteristics. Thus the park is located so as to draw a varied population. Today's widespread use of the bicycle has helped ensure that no group will remain isolated in a particular geographic location.

Origins of the Park

When Central Park was first envisaged, Manhattan Island was poor in open space. A few squares—Bowling Green, Union Square, Madison Square—broke the grid extending northward from the Battery. Broadway's slanting progress up the island left in its wake small triangles not suited for being built upon. The New York Plan of 1811, though boldly providing for a city of far greater size than then existed, did little to cure the deficiency of open space. Anxious not to disappoint the hopes of real estate speculators, it counted upon the waterfront to provide a substitute for parks. Not until the middle of the century, when built-up areas were moving steadily northward, did the need for a large public park begin to make itself felt.

The park movement was fortunate in having at that same time a group of strong civic leaders, and having in William Cullen Bryant a powerful editorial voice convinced that a large park or "pleasure ground" was essential to the growing city. Two principal sites were considered, a location known as Jones Wood, along the shore of the East River, and the other at the center of the island. The latter was selected in 1857, and the planning and construction of the new park was begun.

The several hundred acres acquired for park purposes (the ultimate size of Central Park was to be 840 acres or 336 hectares) were as uncongenial to development as could have been imagined. At once rocky and marshy, this site of abandoned farms and wretched hovels might well have been difficult to conceive as a place of any utility, far less of beauty. Yet here was to take form a setting of romantic vistas and rural perspectives in a style that was to be followed in city after city throughout the remainder of the century. The practical and artistic accomplishment was due in large part to the genius of a man whose name was to become synonymous with landscaped parks.

Olmsted was cast more or less by chance into the role of park-builder. He was not trained as a horticulturist. Little in his early experience suggested that he would become the country's foremost landscape designer and the founder of a new profession. Something of a wanderer in youth, he tried his hand at many things before settling down to the one big thing that was to form his career. He had had, like Melville, his season before the mast. Like Thoreau, he had hoed and planted. He was one with many of his generation in being troubled throughout his life by depression and by unresolved psychological drives. Yet when the chance arose to act as supervisor of construction in the new Central Park, and then to compete in its design, he stepped in as if born to the work.

In partnership with the British-born architect Calvert Vaux, he won the competition. He oversaw the park's development and (despite many threats to quit) was its manager during most of its formative years.

For Olmsted and his contemporaries there was little doubt about what the new park should be. It should provide a contrast to the existing city, a refuge from its noise, its oppressive darkness, from the crowdedness and the inhuman surfaces of streets.

The concern for picturesqueness and for country amenities was not an aesthetic judgment alone. In a typically American way it was a moral judgment, rooted in the conviction that men's outlook and character could be changed for the better. It would be the workingman's park (as well as that of the swells and dandies), and all would benefit spiritually as well as through pleasures received.

Design Innovations

The design of Central Park showed many important innovations. The park drives; the separation by grades of various forms of circulation; the sunken transverse roads; the careful substructure of irrigation and drainage and the use of natural outcroppings as design features—these were to prove suggestive in the future. For the visitor, however, the park gained its special character from the shaded views, the long expanses of grass, the sense of a

wide yet subtly mysterious landscape in which a man might find a sense of peace and a recollection of his earlier roots.

The Park Today

The public devoted to the cause of Central Park is prone to exaggerate the abuses that have overtaken it in the more than one hundred years of its history. Like Olmsted himself, they see the park as "going to the devil;" they may even echo his "grave doubt whether the undertaking to provide a rural recreation ground upon such a site in midst of a city like this was not a mistake. . . . The park," Olmsted added, "can easily become a nuisance and a curse to the city." Today's park devotees become similarly preoccupied with shortcomings of upkeep or restoration, and are often troubled by the number of people Central Park attracts.

In fact, the park has survived remarkably well, considering the changes in the city around it and the variety of social and political pressures to which it has been subjected. Friends of the park like to circulate a map indicating the various outrageous and bizarre proposals—including a huge hotel, an automobile speedway, a landing field for airplanes and a permanent world's fair—which have been made over the years. But the surprising fact is not that such proposals have been made; it is that they were never implemented. They were effectively resisted in some cases, simply laughed out of court in others. A vigilant public makes the park as safe today from major changes or encroachments as is any piece of land in any city of the world.

This is not to deny that there are severe problems—problems of adequate maintenance, of safety, of architectural and horticultural restoration. There are also difficult and delicate choices to be made in the management of the park. The underlying difficulty stems from the basic nature of Central Park and of the parks that were made in its image. "A rural recreation ground" (to use Olmsted's words) is bound to have problems when placed "Upon such a site in midst of a city like this."

But the problems need not be insuperable. The underlying concept should not be considered an anachronism. At least it can be said that New York has made better use of its Central Park, and dealt with its problems more sensitively, than many cities in similar circumstances.

FOREST PARK—PIECEMEAL CHANGE

Forest Park is located centrally within the semicircle of present-day St. Louis. The two square miles (5.2 km^2) of green dominate the urban expanse and form with the newly recaptured waterfront two nobly proportioned and complementary open spaces.

Not surprisingly, a park so large and so centrally located has a lively historical background. The acquisition of the tract was subject to controversy and its subsequent development was under the impulse of varied and often contradictory pressures. In 1871 enterprising citizens in the western part of the city secured legislative authority to acquire the park, and three years later the city purchased it for the sum of $849,058.61. Property owners sued against what seemed an act of folly and a derogation of their natural rights to speculate in the land. The basic legislative act was, however, declared valid.

The next problem was to design the park. The names of two relatively unknown men, M.G. Kern and Henry Flad—one a park superintendent, the other an engineer—appear on the original plan, now in the possession of the St. Louis Historical Society. These men were evidently familiar with Olmsted's work, and in the winding roadways, the rustic bridges, the deference to natural forest areas, the master's influence is visible.

Influences

Another aesthetic force was also at work—the tendency toward the grand and the classical, which has long inspired the citizens of St. Louis and may be seen today in the city's central mall. A hippodrome with a monumental figure of a horse at the center, a bizarre music stand, a castle (subject to being redesigned as the "ruin of a castle"), and a statue of Edward Bates, a local political luminary, were among the incongruous features included.

For better or worse, the plan—unlike that of New York's Central Park—was not one to which there was ever any strong commitment. The depression of the early 1890s drastically cut the funds available for development—though leaving enough for the statue of Mr. Bates. Then the St. Louis Exposition of 1904, the centennial of the Louisiana Purchase, changed the park's physical aspect and turned the city's thought to new social concerns.

The exposition authorities promised to return the parklands "as found." But in clearing sites for their buildings they felled seventeen thousand trees; and they left structures that are in use to this day. In addition, to compensate for the destruction of the trees, a new Jefferson memorial was constructed, a formal portal to the park at the De Baliviere entrance. The two wings of the building now house the Historical Society, and a monumental figure of Jefferson looks down upon the park from the pillared loggia.

The loss of the forest and the introduction of new man-made elements opened the way to an avalanche of "improvements." Thereafter, every time a new institution was created or a new entertainment devised, Forest Park seemed the natural place to put it. Today the park contains a zoo—an excellent one—using seventy of its acres (28 ha), a fine arts museum, a planetarium, an ice-skating rink, a municipal opera and three golf courses (one of them semiprivate), as well as much space given over to parking. The River des Peres, once thought of as a natural feature of great potential beauty, but subject to flooding and unpleasant smells, has been placed underground in a sewer. . . .

The features singled out for reference (in plans of the original park and the park now) suggest how widely separated are the interests of today's park users from those of a hundred years ago. In one case, the "floral promenade," the "sheep folds," the "terrace," the "rustic shelter;" in the other, "model airplane field," "golf course," "skating rink," and "baseball field."

Reflection of Social Causes

Before dismissing Forest Park for its apparently piecemeal and haphazard accumulation of special features and

programs, we must take into account the very real interest in social causes that animated St. Louis and affected its outlook on parks. The 1904 Exposition may have occasioned the cutting down of trees. But is also made articulate a new emphasis on social progress and humanitarian reform. If man the creator was on display, so were the forces shaping man. Instead of only showing the wonder of scientific invention and consumer gadgetry that the new century was ready to pour out, the fair became by the conscious decision of its sponsors an opportunity to present to its visitors the latest theories of social scientists. Forest Park itself became a laboratory in which new ideas of education and recreation were explored.

Installed as part of the fair, a model playground was retained and became a pattern for others throughout the city. Hundreds of small plots were marked out at the edge of the park and assigned to children for growing vegetables. In 1911 something even more revolutionary in the use of the park took place. The "Keep Off the Grass" signs were removed. To the sociologically-oriented park officials, grass was no longer something to be looked at from a distance and surveyed from paved pathways. "To the element of natural beauty," states a park report of 1915, "has been added the conception of social utility. . . . The primary purpose of the park system has become the raising of men and women rather than grass or trees." In that same year the name Department of Parks ceased to be used and the agency became known as the Division of Public Welfare.

The emphasis on "social utility" may seem naive, yet one should not minimize the degree to which Forest Park has served the communal interests of the city around it. The strong tradition which persists to this day of outdoor pageants, festivals, concerts, and ethnic celebrations has worked as a unifying force in St. Louis, and the many facilities for sport and culture give the park a lively, well-used appearance. In short, if Central Park in New York has survived as a powerful civic asset because it resisted change, Forest Park has survived and on the whole has prospered because it accommodated itself to new needs and to new social doctrines.

Department of Parks and Recreation, City of Detroit

Belle Isle—Detroit's island park.

BELLE ISLE—PARK WITH A SOCIAL PROBLEM

No one of the country's larger parks presents today a more tantalizing challenge than Belle Isle in Detroit. The Belle Isle map shows it as an island in the narrow Detroit River, which separates the United States from Canada, situated a few hundred yards (meters) off the U.S. shore and no more than half a mile (.8 km) downstream from the business core. Belle Isle was set aside as a park in 1881 when Olmsted came out from Boston to survey the land and make a plan. The design was in his characteristic style, with a formal area toward the end of the island nearest the city, an elaborate water system with canals fed from the river, and with a natural forest carefully preserved and pruned so that sun could penetrate to the undergrowth.

Olmsted does not seem to have been entirely happy (he rarely was entirely happy) with the way his plan was implemented by the city authorities. From the beginning there was a disposition to place within the park more buildings than he thought desirable and to set land apart for such specialized uses as ball games, swimming, tennis courts, and formal gardens.

A Symbol

Today Belle Isle, enlarged by landfill to a thousand acres (400 ha), is in many of its areas a hodgepodge of inharmonious and tasteless structures, while delicate wrought-iron bridges from the last century decay and rust. The casino, an exotic period piece, shelters the elderly and a third-rate eating place. More recent additions like the Scott Fountain and the Nancy Brown Peace Pavilion serve less to provide an air of elegance than to make everything else look the more shoddy.

Yet the park is well used, and in a strange sort of way is well loved. As many as 23,000 people per day, most of them black, come over the one bridge from the city that the whites left behind when they fled to the suburbs. A small but intense group of such suburbanites constitutes the Friends of Belle Isle Park, determined to restore it to something of its former natural charm and man-made splendor.

The park has become a symbol to both blacks and whites. Coleman Young, the black mayor elected in 1974, echoes the dedicated Ray Rickman, chairman of the Friends, in calling Belle Isle "a top priority;" yet one has the feeling that each has a somewhat different picture in mind. The mayor sends in city forces to pave the roadways and enlarge the parking places; while Friends struggle to get a city contract with an outstanding landscape architect, whose first recommendation would probably be to narrow or eliminate the roads and to restrict parking. Yet for everyone this grand open space is a test of the city's capacity to survive; and the Friends, fortunately, are not so blindly devoted to a past tradition that they cannot see the need to meet the interests of new racial and economic groups.

From the book OPEN SPACES: The Life of American Cities *by August Heckscher. Copyright 1977 by the Twentieth Century Fund, Inc. Reprinted by permission of Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc.*

National Urban Recreation Study Findings

A summary of findings presented in the study's Executive Report

The following Summary of Findings was presented in the National Urban Recreation Study Executive Report, jointly compiled by the Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service and the National Park Service. We feel the findings will be of interest and significance to TRENDS readers on all park and recreation agency levels. The 184-page, well-illustrated Executive Report, complete with extensive bibliography, is available for $3.50 from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402, stock number 024-016-0090-1.

The greatest urban recreation deficiencies exist in the inner cores of our largest cities.

Summary of Findings

1 People in all urban areas want a well-balanced system of urban recreation opportunities which includes close-to-home neighborhood facilities and programs for all segments of the population.

- Most people want recreation close-to-home, but recreation opportunities are often poorly-distributed in urban areas.
- Recreation in urban areas includes a wide array of programs provided by many organizations in a variety of locations. Urban recreation opportunities encompass participatory and spectator sports, environmental education, arts and cultural programs, "just relaxing" in the parks, and many others. These opportunities are provided by local governments, schools, private voluntary groups, and commercial organizations. They are found in parks, community and senior citizen centers, service centers of non-profit, voluntary agencies, and in other public and private facilities.

2 A wide variety of open space areas with substantial scenic, cultural, environmental, agricultural, and recreational values remain in and near our cities. While threats to remaining open space areas due to continued urban expansion into the countryside are very real, acquisition of these areas can meet only a small portion of total recreation needs.

- A large number of potential open space and recreation sites exist in the study areas, within and outside cities, but the primary values of most open space sites are environmental and economic rather than recreational.
- Open space acquisition on the fringe of urban areas, such as that involved in creation of new National Recreation Areas, is frequently justified on the basis of providing recreation opportunities for urban residents, but does not meet the highest priority recreation needs of most city dwellers.

3 Existing and potential recreation resources are not being fully utilized.

- The city itself is a recreation resource—its streets, its museums, its churches, its gathering places all provide recreation opportunities.
- Many city parks and recreation facilities are under-utilized because of limited activity programming, poor staffing, deteriorated conditions, or bad locations.
- Water supply reservoirs, utility corridors, abandoned railroad rights-of-way, and decaying waterfronts all have potential to be *re-used* for recreation.
- Schools, community centers, churches, and public buildings have unrealized potential for recreation use in conjunction with their primary functions.

4 Good management, well-trained staff, and adequate financial suppor are the keys to providing good recreatio services.

- Satisfaction with recreation opportunities in the urban areas studied was more dependent on the existence of good programs and imaginative leadership than on large acreages or elaborate facilities.

5 Lack of coordination among recreation providers at every level of government is a serious barrier to more efficient and responsive urban recreation programs.

- Few urban areas have effective mechanisms for coordination of recreation services and facilities. In some cities, fiscal conditions discourage coordination that can creat more effective and efficient recreatio services. For example, several joint school park and recreation programs have been discontinued due to lack of funds.
- At the metropolitan level, lack of common land-use goals and strategie makes protection of identified region open space very difficult.

6 The greatest urban recreation deficiencies for land and facilities exist in the inner cores of the nation's largest cities.

- In the growing cities, the greatest need is for development of new parkland and facilities, in the older cities, lack of funds for programs and maintenance has restricted recreation opportunities and has resulted in the loss of large investments in park facilities as these facilities deteriorate and become unusable
- Recreation deficiencies in the large, economically hard-pressed cities are unlikely to be corrected through local efforts or through existing federal programs since parks and recreation agencies in these cities are having difficulty competing for public dollars. These cities are often receiving less money to provide recreation services than they did five years ago.

7 As local dollars for parks and recreation become more scarce, localities have turned for help, not to the states, but to the federal government.

- Very few states direct their own financial resources to urban recreation.
- The major federal programs providing funds for parks and recreation, either directly or indirectly are: the Land and Water Conservation Fund, General Revenue Sharing, Community Development Block Grants, and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Most of these programs are not designed specifically to enhance urban recreation, but they make substantial impacts on urban recreation programs.
- The Land and Water Conservation Fund—the major categorical grant program for recreation—provides almost twice as much money per capita to suburban areas as to central cities. Only 16 percent of the state and local share of the Fund has been expended in central cities containing 30 percent of the national population.
- General Revenue Sharing and the Community Development Block Grant Program are used least for recreation in the older economically hard-pressed cities which use these federal funds for more urgent and essential needs.
- The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act program has enabled many park and recreation agencies in economically hard-pressed cities to maintain recreation services that they would have been unable to provide with local funds alone. However, use of the CETA Program, which was not specifically intended to meet park and recreation manpower needs, has had unintended, adverse consequences on the quality of recreation services provided.

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City dwellers want a well-balanced system of urban recreation including close-to-home facilities

8 No coherent national urban policy exists that considers urban recreation.

- Current federal policy emphasizes state and local discretion in use of revenue sharing, block and single-purpose, categorical grants for urban recreation. The targeting of these funds to meet critical urban needs is thus largely a function of state and local priorities. The federal government promotes coordination of these grant and planning programs mainly through statewide, metropolitan, and areawide A-95 clearinghouses. Thus, while a national policy does exist, based on state and local discretion and coordination, the lack of an explicit national policy on meeting urban recreation needs has resulted in piecemeal and sometimes conflicting efforts.
- The lack of a coherent policy results in uneven application of federal programs to urban recreation problems. Conflicting or uncoordinated goals and strategies at the federal level produce gaps and overlaps in local use of federal dollars. The effects of federal dollars could be made much more positive by a unified approach which encourages federal, state, and local cooperation in addressing critical urban recreation problems.

9 Current national recreation programs do not effectively address priority open space and recreation needs of urban areas.

- Federal programs directed at land protection have had little impact on continued loss of valuable open space resources in and near cities. The emphasis has been on full-fee acquisition of threatened lands and resources rather than on alternative land protection strategies.
- Federal support for urban recreation comes primarily from community development, manpower, and human services programs that are not primarily directed toward recreation, but are, nevertheless, major influences on community and neighborhood programs.

Meeting Milwaukee's Urban Recreation Challenges

by Larry L. Lenox and staff

Among the suggestions frequently proposed for meeting urban recreation needs is that of utilizing school buildings, gymnasiums, auditoriums, athletic courts, and other facilities during non-school hours. Milwaukee, Wisconsin not only has put this suggestion into operation, it has expanded upon the principle and has gained recognition as the "City of the Lighted Schoolhouse."

The Division of Municipal Recreation and Community Education, the public agency charged with the responsibility for providing leisure time activities for Milwaukee citizens, operates under the jurisdiction of the School Board and is financed by a special mill levy collected and administered through what is called the Extension Fund. The following article explains a number of the Division's special urban programs and outlines the cooperative agreements that make the programs possible. Some of the Milwaukee approaches may be of interest to other local agencies.

An empty lot serves as a park when a Roving Leader arrives with skates for neighborhood children.

The uniqueness of Milwaukee's method of meeting urban challenges lies in three major areas: (1) its relationship to the school district and Common (City) Council, (2) its funding, and (3) its development of cooperative agreements with local, county, and state agencies.

Relationship to School Board and Common Council

The Division of Municipal Recreation and Community Education, under direct jurisdiction of the Milwaukee Board of School Directors, is administered by an Assistant Superintendent of Schools. As a Division of the school system, it operates under the guidelines, policies, and procedures set for the system. Being a municipal agency, the Division works closely with the Common Council and Mayor's Office to insure meeting the various recreational needs throughout the city.

Through a joint resolution, Milwaukee's Common Council and the Board of School Directors cooperate in providing facilities for public outdoor recreation programs. School Board policy dictates that new elementary school sites have sufficient areas to include neighborhood playgrounds. However, when it becomes necessary to enlarge existing school playgrounds or create separate playfields, the Common Council purchases the needed land. In either case, the Common Council appropriates the funds for developing the play areas and turns over the completed facilities to the School Board for maintenance and program operation by the Recreation Division.

Program and Capital Improvement Funding

All of the Division's maintenance and program funds, except those from special local, state, and federal programs, are derived from a mill levy collected for the express purpose of providing recreation programs to Milwaukee residents. None of these funds are allocated for capital improvements.

Capital improvement dollars are generated through the Common Council. The city's Department of Public Works employs a playground engineer, who assists the Assistant Superintendent of the Recreation Division in planning the construction program. Each year they submit their recommendations to the city's Capital Improvement, Finance, and Public Improvement committees for approval. Money is then allocated for the major capital improvements on a priority basis.

The Board of School Directors builds, maintains, and improves school buildings and playgrounds which are used for community recreation programs. In this case, the Municipal Recreation Division is able to take advantage of Milwaukee Public School's Capital Improvements. This indirect capital improvement resource gives Milwaukee citizens a more efficient use of their tax dollar.

Cooperative Agreements

To provide Milwaukeeans with the best possible public recreation program, the Division has sought and entered into a number of agreements with private industries, agencies, and governmental groups. An agreement with the Milwaukee County Park Commission calls for the Recreation Division to provide leadership on playgrounds in county parks located within the city.

The Wisconsin Department of Natura Resources and the Recreation Division cooperate in two major agreements relating to special facilities located withi 35 miles (14 ha) of Milwaukee. Under th terms of these special agreements, the Division operates a nature camp on stat land at Palmyra and a 200-acre (80 ha) working farm owned by the state.

Special programming agreements hav been developed with the Milwaukee Industrial Recreation Council to provide athletic facilities and league organizatior A contractual funding agreement with the Milwaukee Community Development Agency office makes possible the summer Lighted Schoolhouse Program. Individual agreements with local industries provide additional special activities for the Division's Roving Leader and performin arts programs.

The Milwaukee Public School's Repair Division performs certain maintenance operations under cooperative agreements. And a number of youth an other leisure service agencies contract with the Division annually for a variety of services.

Innovative Programming for an Urban Community

Utilization of Milwaukee Public Schools properties and other community state, and regional resources enables the Division to make available to more citizens a wider range of services.

DMRCE

Schools become game rooms during noon hour in the 4th "R" program.

DMRCE

With the help of a friend, anyone can be a clown in this 4th "R" drama class.

Professional recreation personnel plan the programs, in concert with community representatives, to meet neighborhood interests, needs, and requests. Selected program descriptions follow to show some of the ways that Milwaukee has met a broad range of urban recreation needs through innovative planning and community coordination.

Summer Lighted Schoolhouse Program

This cooperative venture of the Recreation Division and the Milwaukee Community Development Agency enables the Division to provide special activities at high schools throughout the city.

Schools remain open for community use during the summer months. Activities include basketball, volleyball, weightlifting, gymnastics, community and competitive swim and track. In addition, instructional programs in cheerleading, basketball, volleyball, wrestling, and gymnastics are offered at some locations. Special Arts Workshops are held in dance, art, and film making.

Summer attendance at the Lighted Schoolhouse Program activities totaled over 77,000 in 1977. That same year, the Community Development Agency also provided the funds to continue the Lighted Schoolhouse Program into the school year with the opening of a new high school community center.

Roving Leader Program

A unique and important part of the summer recreation thrust is the Roving Leader Program. Roving leader sites are selected to meet the requests of residents whose children cannot attend regular playgrounds because of railroad tracks, expressways, or other physical barriers between their neighborhood and regularly supervised playgrounds.

Sites vary from parking lots and vacant lots to proposed school sites. Any open space that is found to be safe for play is considered. The site, days, and hours of operation, and program details are discussed with the requesting neighborhood group, and are designed to meet specific recreational needs.

Because of the limitations of the facilities that are usually available, and the fact that the equipment and supplies used for the program must be carried by the roving leaders in their cars, low-organized games, arts and crafts, roller skating, and field trips form the basis of the program. Ball diamonds and basketball courts are also utilized if available. Roving leaders arrange their schedule so that they are at each location at least three times a week.

Outdoor Education

Unique in the Division's Outdoor Education Program is probably the operation of the working farm mentioned above. Oak Ridge Farm, owned by the state's Department of Natural Resources, is operated and maintained as a working farm by the Recreation Division for educational and recreational purposes. Seventy-five percent of the available visitor days are reserved for Milwaukee groups; the other twenty-five are available to non-Milwaukeeans on a first-come, first-served fee basis. Since 1971, some 10,000 people a year have enjoyed this educational and interesting farm experience.

Additional outdoor education is programmed by the Recreation Division at Palmyra Camp in the Kettle Moraine State Forest and at Hawthorn Glen, a 17-acre (6.8 ha) Outdoor Education Center located in Milwaukee. More than forty outdoor education programs are sponsored by the Division. These include Hunter, Boating, and Snowmobile Safety, nature-related clinics and activities, outdoor leadership training courses, day camps, and special field trips.

4th "R" Program

The 4th "R" Program is designed to assist the Milwaukee community with its school desegregation plan. The "R" stands for "relationships." This program encourages the development of interpersonal relationships through better understanding of cultural differences in newly desegregated schools. It is a part of the Milwaukee Public Schools' Human Relations component funded through the Title VII Emergency Aid School Act.

Using a split lunch hour, children participate either the half-hour before or the half-hour after eating lunch. Youngsters sign up for the various activities which meet between one and five times a week, depending on school enrollment and the availability of facilities.

The 4th "R" Program at elementary and middle schools includes a wide array of activities such as playground games, sports, arts and crafts, drama, needlework, and model building. At junior and senior high schools, the programs offered are primarily designed around physical activities.

Milwaukee Division of Municipal Recreation

Milwaukee's Recreation Division operates a working farm on state-owned land under a cooperative agreement.

This program has been cited by parents and school staff members as having a positive influence on continued student participation in a voluntary integration plan. The diversification of activities and subsequent interaction of students has encouraged and enhanced communication among classmates representing different socioeconomic and racial backgrounds. The development of a strong sense of school/community togetherness has been noted as one of the distinct strengths of the program. In the academic year of 1977–78, the program was offered at 48 public school locations.

Program for Handicapped People

Keeping with the Division's philosophy to provide leisure and enrichment opportunities for all Milwaukeeans, a program for handicapped people was begun in 1963. This program seeks cooperation from a variety of community resources and coordinates its efforts through a special metropolitan association for therapeutic recreation directors.

The year-round program serves children and adults who are physically disabled, mentally handicapped, emotionally disturbed, behaviorally disabled, sensorally disabled, and multiply handicapped. To allow for total community input, the Division works closely with the Special Task Force for Exceptional Education of the Milwaukee Public Schools. Activities are carefully analyzed to meet the needs of the disabled and to complement current community programs.

Activities include dances, archery, bowling, wheelchair basketball, dramatics, arts and crafts, tennis lessons, swimming, field trips, and a nature day camp. A comprehensive activity checklist questionnaire assists staff planning of activities and helps the staff meet special needs of program participants.

"The Learning Place"—Cooperative Play

Begun in 1970, this program for preschool children operates in seven municipal field houses throughout the city. Full-time Division staff members and neighborhood parents with preschoolers serve as instructors for the program, which operates on a tri-semester format during the September to June school calendar year. Children are enrolled on a first-come, first-served basis for morning or afternoon classes. Field trips, an important part of the children's learning experience, include tours of the Division's Oak Ridge Farm, neighborhood firehouses, museums, and fast-food restaurants.

The goals of the program are to provide opportunities for children to achieve successful play experiences with their peer groups and create positive self-images. An important concept of the Cooperative Play Program is parental involvement and education. The Division requires that mothers volunteer at the co-op play center so they have the chance to compare their children with others of the same age.

Golden Age—XYZ Program

In fifty-six locations throughout the city, Golden Age—XYZ Program provides leisure time activities and opens new avenues of experience for people over 55 years of age. Groups meet in schools, housing projects, field houses, and recreation centers. Activities include tennis lessons, camping and field trips, dartball leagues, swimming, and health spa relaxation. Information about social security, banking procedures, health, nutrition, legal rights, and leisure counseling are also available to participants.

Municipal Athletics

The Department of Municipal Athletics and Physical Activities offers a varied program of individual and team athletic activities for boys, girls, men, and women. The program of team sports includes three types of leagues: municipal leagues—sponsored and conducted by the Department; affiliated leagues—sponsored by private organizations, businesses, industrial firms, church and fraternal groups, but operated by the Department; and permit leagues—sponsored and conducted by private organizations, utilizing Recreation Division facilities on a fee permit basis.

Volunteer Services

Volunteers play an integral part in the Division's goal to bring recreational opportunities to the citizens of Milwaukee. Through the Office of Volunteer Services, a community-wide effort is made to recruit, train, and recognize volunteers. Because volunteer service is a leisure time activity of those who volunteer, the program is considered as a program offering of the Division.

Volunteering is one of the most popular and rewarding of all leisure time activities. Not only do the volunteers receive self-gratification in terms of service, but they have an opportunity to participate in a worthwhile recreation activity in their service to others. Presently, over 1,000 people annually serve the community through the Recreation Division Volunteer Program. This represents 200,000 volunteer hours annually.

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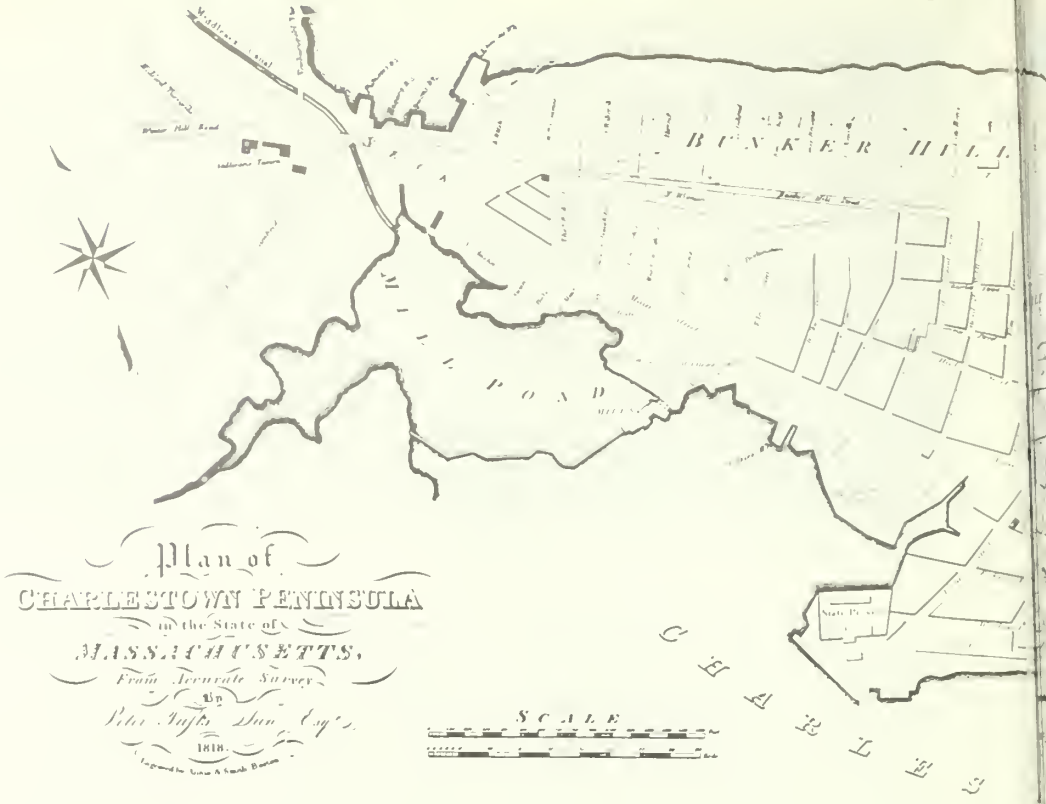
A Park Comes to Charlestown

by D Thomas Ross



It becomes increasingly apparent to planners and public administrators that public investment in infrastructure such as roadways, mass transit lines, sewers, schools, and other public facilities can have an enormous and often overwhelming impact on the development and growth of a particular area. We have all observed negative impacts resulting from unplanned and unchecked growth which can and often does appear as urban sprawl However, we are now beginning to realize that a positive impact may be achieved through wise, careful, and well-planned investment Often, a key investment may be the development of recreational facilities or the preservation of open space.

State's Role in Guiding Growth

In October of 1975, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts took a first step in developing a statewide growth policy. "Towards a Growth Policy for Massachusetts," published by the newly formed Office of State Planning, marked the first time that the Commonwealth of Massachusetts recognized the role state government had in guiding and regulating growth. The paper clearly indicated that the state government, through its investments and regulatory powers, exerted a significant and sometimes controlling influence over growth and development.

The paper identified dispersed growth as a major threat to the economic well-being of the Commonwealth and placed priorities on reversing the trend away from the older, urban areas in Massachusetts. It recognized that serious inequities had resulted from unguided growth and had resulted in a serious deterioration in what historically had been the economic and population centers in the state.

A number of key state investments were identified as major components affecting growth in Massachusetts, among them the acquisition and development of recreational areas.

The recognition that public investment in outdoor recreational facilities and areas has an influence on growth and development was an important step in realizing the value and importance of recreational development and its effect on an area. Traditionally, Massachusetts like many other states, has invested state and federal funds in acquiring sizeable tracts of wilderness or undeveloped land for preservation, protection and/or later development. This has resulted in large state parks, greenbelts, or recreational areas outside the urban areas which are accessible only to those having transportation to reach them.

More Funding for Urban Recreation

As a result of "Towards a Growth Policy for Massachusetts" and the 1976 Massachusetts Statewide Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plan—which pointed out the critical imbalance between the supply and demand of open space and recreational facilities in the metropolitan areas—the present state administration's policy has been to funnel state and federal recreational investment into the urban areas. Since January of 1975, over $12,000,000 in Land and Water Conservation Fund monies have gone to urban areas; over 90 percent of the 1977 and 1978 apportionments have been committed to projects in urban areas. State investment also gives high priority to acquisition of land for passive recreation in the urban areas.

A key urban recreation project is now providing impetus for a massive redevelopment of the former Charlestown Naval Shipyard in Boston, adjacent to the site of the *U.S.S. Constitution*. On November 8, 1976, Governor Michael Dukakis and Secretary of Environmental Affairs Evelyn Murphy announced a commitment of $900,000 in Land and Water Conservation Fund assistance for the first stage development of a waterfront park in the Charlestown Naval Shipyard. An additional $500,000 was committed in 1977 out of the 1978 fiscal year apportionment.

As a result of this investment in an urban park, a private developer will soon begin construction and renovation of existing structures which will result in 1200 apartment and townhouse units which could provide the city of Boston with up to $3,000,000 annually in property tax revenue when completed. The investment in federal assistance is consistent with two major thrusts of the current state administration—spending public funds in such a way as to trigger substantially private investment, and directing recreational money and projects toward populous urban areas rather than isolated rural areas.

Waterfront Park

As the key investment, the waterfront park will provide recreational

opportunities for the people of Charlestown, as well as the residents of the apartments and townhouses. The park, which will total 16.4 acres (6.6 ha), will provide public access to the waterfront area for the residents. It will also offer both passive and active recreational opportunities including a waterfront promenade, sitting areas, fountains, a children's play area, and open areas for kite flying, sliding, and informal activities.

While the park will provide badly needed recreational facilities and open space for the residents of the area, one may question if the development of a waterfront park would have occurred if the apartment and townhouse construction were not taking place. Certainly, there can be little argument that Charlestown requires additional open space and recreational areas. With a population of 17,000 in a densely settled area of Boston, the current recreational supply consists of 22 acres (8.8 ha) of playgrounds and 6 acres (2.4 ha) of public parks.

Interrelated Benefits

While the development of recreational facilities in an urban area can be of great importance for those in need of facilities, it can have even larger implications in the redevelopment and enhancement of an area. Park and recreation facilities can and often do have a positive impact on the area around them and its development.

It must be kept in mind that recreational facilities are a small, but important component of the total urban environment which has an enormous influence on those residing there. Thus, while it is important that recreational facilities and areas serve a need for such facilities, it is more important that the recreational areas serve as positive links in the overall revitalization and enhancement of an area.

Massachusetts, like most other states, no longer has the resources available to expend public monies without some form of policy which that investment can address. Its statewide growth policy now recognizes that public investment can have an enormous role in determining a standard of living. Thus, the Commonwealth can now look upon public investment as an instrument that can provide multiple benefits. Recreational investment will no longer be utilized without the recognition of all the effects such development and investment can have. Public recreational investment will be measured in terms of its ability to stimulate and encourage revitalization and additional private investment, as well as its recreation potential.

Through one key, but relatively small, commitment of Land and Water Conservation Fund monies, an estimated $100,000,000 development has begun which will provide an increased tax base for the city of Boston, recreational opportunities for the people of Charlestown, a revitalized waterfront area, and a much healthier urban environment for those residing in Charlestown.

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The opinions contained in this article represent those of the author and do not necessarily represent the policy and positions of the agency with which he is employed.

Federal Support for Local Park and Recreation Systems

by Judith S. Benedict

As local tax dollars for parks and recreation have become increasingly scarce, the federal government has been footing a growing share of the bill for urban recreation—directly through park assistance programs like the Land and Water Conservation Fund, and indirectly through programs such as the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Four major federal assistance programs—the Land and Water Conservation Fund (LWCF), the Community Development Block Grant program (CDBG), the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act program (CETA), and General Revenue Sharing (GRS)—provide about $1.2 billion to local park and recreation systems each year (see chart). Or, to put it another way, these four programs contributed about 35 percent of all dollars spent by cities and counties for parks and recreation in 1976.

Such a significant federal involvement in local recreation immediately raises questions about the nature of that involvement. Are federal dollars being equitably distributed to localities? Are they being effectively used to meet local needs? Are there serious local needs that are not being met due to lack of funding, either local, state, or federal?

In 1976, Congress asked the Department of the Interior to look into the problems of recreation in urban areas. The product of that year-long investigation, the National Urban Recreation Study, was published last spring. As the Study began to answer the questions posed above, it became clear that many urban areas—especially central cities and older jurisdictions—are not able to use federal recreation dollars and that dollars which are available are not adequately addressing a variety of urban recreation needs.

Let's take a closer look at how the existing federal programs affect urban recreation and then examine new federal initiatives that could increase federal support for urban recreation.

EXISTING PROGRAMS

The Land and Water Conservation Fund

Traditionally, the federal government's recreation programs have

been oriented toward helping protect natural resources for recreation use. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that the Land and Water Conservation Fund has been spent primarily where these resources exist—in rural areas and on urban fringes to preserve open space before development occurs and to create new parks

A look at obligations of the LWCF over the life of the program (since 1965) tells the story: from 1965 to 1977, the average per capita obligation in rural areas was $10.79; in suburban areas, $7.36; and in central cities, $3.88. Central cities, which are home to 29 percent of the nation's population, have received only 16 percent of the LWCF. Only two major cities in the country, Boston and New Orleans, have consistently received a share of the LWCF which equals their share of the population of the state. Cleveland, on the other hand, received its first LWCF grant in 1977. Overall, local LWCF obligations in Fiscal Year 1976 were $127 million.

But things are changing. Many states, whose job it is to distribute the Fund to localities, have recently changed their allocation formulas and are now directing more of the LWCF to urban areas. Some states, such as California and New Jersey, have even created their own urban recreation assistance programs. California's Roberti-Z'berg Urban Open Space Program provides 75 percent matching grants to localities for acquisition and development, 85 percent of which is given to urban areas, while New Jersey's Green Acres Program, used in conjunction with the LWCF, provides 90 percent matching grants for acquisition and development to 28 "urban aid" cities, including such fiscally hard-pressed cities as Newark, Trenton, and Camden. Massachusetts, Michigan, and Pennsylvania have also supplied special financial assistance to urban jurisdictions.

Steps are also being taken at the federal level to ensure that appropriate urban objectives are adequately addressed by the Fund. The Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service (HCRS) is currently revising its guidelines for the State Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Planning (SCORP) process, required from all states receiving LWCF monies. States will be urged to make full assessments of the recreation delivery systems in their urban areas and to ensure the full participation of all constituents in the SCORP process. The Secretary of the Interior has also earmarked a substantial portion of the Secretary's Contingency Fund in Fiscal Year 1978 for demonstration projects in urban areas to signify his support for urban recreation funding.

Pressures for funding park restoration are also accelerating. Many older cities with established park systems need assistance, not for new acquisition and development, but for renovation and rehabilitation of existing facilities. Many city parks were built in the early 1900s or during the 1930s under the Works Progress Administration (WPA) program. Some are now so badly deteriorated due to long-term heavy use, vandalism, or under-maintenance that they have become unusable. Others have become obsolete due to the changing character of neighborhood populations since the parks were built.

To offer LWCF assistance for park development to cities that cannot maintain the ones they have is like offering a second home to a person whose first one has a leaky roof. Admittedly, one solution would be to abandon the old parks and build new ones. But, just as a new house costs more than roof repairs, building new parks is far more costly than restoring the old ones.

Rather than lose the tremendous investment in existing urban parks, some states are making LWCF grants available for rehabilitation. New York City this year will use $2.6 million in LWCF grants to renovate 88 neighborhood parks throughout the city. And New York City is not unique. As the need for rehabilitation grows, and in the absence of alternative funding sources, it seems likely that the LWCF will be increasingly used by cities to reinvest in their deteriorating parks.

Community Development Block Grants

Among the categorical grants folded into the present Community Development Block Grant program were those of the Department of Housing and Urban Development's former Open Space Program. Consequently, CDBG funds are being used for acquisition, development, and rehabilitation of recreation facilities, and for support of local urban recreation programs. In 1976, Entitlement Cities spent $121.6 million of their CDBG funds (7.7 percent) on parks and recreation; urban counties spent another $10.5 million (7.0 percent). The $132 million in community development funds spent on recreation exceeds the $127 million in LWCF given to all localities—urban and rural—by the states (see chart).

Bicycling grows as a popular sport—and means of transportation in urban areas.

Because the block grant approach allows the local community to decide how community development funds will be used, local spending patterns can serve as a guide to local priorities. According to a special survey done by the Brookings Institution for the National Urban Recreation Study, 85 percent of CDBG funds used for recreation purposes is spent on recreation facilities, while only 7 percent is spent on open space acquisition and 8 percent on programs. Compared to the old categorical grant programs for open space and neighborhood facilities, communities now use CDBG funds more heavily for neighborhood facilities (perhaps due to the fact that the categorical grants could only go to low-income neighborhoods) and less heavily for open space acquisition.

Although four out of every five cities in the Brookings sample spent a portion of their CDBG funds on recreation, that share varied greatly depending on the community. In general, the newer, relatively well-off jurisdictions with little or no previous categorical grant experience (and, therefore, little prior commitment to continuing those

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programs with CDBG funds) spent a larger share of their CDBG funds on recreation than older, fiscally distressed cities with many pressing urban needs and commitments to continue funding programs begun under the old categorical grant programs.

For example, Houston—a relatively new, growing city with an expanding tax base and no previous urban renewal program—allocated a third of its $13.5 million community development funds for new parks and improvements to existing ones. St. Louis and Newark, on the other hand—both old, fiscally distressed cities with rapidly declining populations and heavy involvement in the old urban categorical grant programs—spent none of their Community Development dollars on parks or recreation.

Large, older cities used CDBG most heavily for recreation services, generally because these were continuations of programs begun under model cities. Philadelphia, for example, spent half of the $1.8 million in community development funds that it devoted to recreation activities on summer recreation programs.

Due to a change in the allocation formula, hard-pressed cities will get additional CDBG funds beginning in 1978. However, the likelihood that many of these cities will choose to use more of their CDBG funds for recreation appears slim. Even if additional funds are available—due to the change in the formula or the completion of projects begun under the old categorical grant programs—many distressed cities may continue to choose not to use CDBG funds for recreation because of other pressing needs.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act

If the federal government can be said to have a recreation policy, it is to give support to local communities for capital expenditures (and to a limited extent for programs through the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Community Services Administration, and the Department of Housing and Urban Development), but not to get into the business of providing operations and maintenance assistance (O&M).

Despite these intentions, the federal government *is* a heavy financier of operation and maintenance. Fully half the federal dollars spent by local park and recreation systems ($.6 billion in Fiscal Year 1976) are CETA dollars, used to pay employees to maintain local park systems and, to a lesser extent, run recreation programs (see graph). The overwhelming majority of localities, according to the National Urban Recreation Study, report a large and growing reliance on CETA to fund park and recreation personnel. The pattern of this reliance is the reverse of the pattern of use of CDBG for recreation: it is the fiscally hard-pressed communities that use CETA most heavily for parks and recreation. In Cleveland, Gary, and New York City, for example, over half the full-time employees are paid by CETA.

Some cities have employed CETA workers to great advantage. In Boston, for example, CETA Title VI funds were used to put 100 people to work restoring Franklin Park. Originally designed as the centerpiece of Olmsted's Emerald Necklace park system, Franklin Park has suffered badly from years of neglect as middle class families moved out of the neighborhood surrounding the park and the poor replaced them. The CETA project was designed to put people to work on specific restoration projects that would produce highly visible results in a relatively short period of time. Many people were given training in the course of the project and efforts are now being made to find these people permanent jobs.

Many elements of the project—the emphasis on specific goals and visible results, its short-term nature, the provision of good supervision and training, and the effort to place people permanently once the project was over—made for a successful effort and illustrate how CETA can be used very effectively to supplement existing maintenance efforts.

Unfortunately, many cities have not so carefully tailored the CETA program, with its limitations as well as its benefits, to the needs of park systems. While the use of CETA has allowed many park and recreation departments to maintain services that otherwise might have been cut, no one knows what the future price of this temporary support will be. In the short run, managers are concerned that the quality of park operations and maintenance is declining because many CETA workers are unskilled and parks departments cannot provide the training, equipment, or supervision necessary to make CETA workers more productive.

Long-run costs are harder to assess. Dependence on CETA has hampered rational decision making and long-term planning efforts. The availability of CETA often contributes to the delay in making local funding decisions about permanent staff, yet CETA's annual allocation process produces yearly uncertainty about the number of CETA positions that will be available. Clearly cognizant of the temporary nature of CETA, many communities that can afford to do so use CETA workers only on short-term projects. Yet many cities where CETA personnel are providing ongoing O&M services, report that O&M activities would have to be cut if CETA were discontinued.

So, inadvertently, the federal government is now in the business of helping maintain local park systems. Whether or not those systems benefit in the long run from CETA depends not only on local decisions about use of the program, but upon federal actions.

So far the federal response has not been encouraging.

The findings of the March, 1978 report of the National Commission on Manpower Policy to Congress, reveal this attitude:

> Most public service employee (PSE) enrollees are employed in essential activities, such as public safety or public works, or in important education, health, social, or cultural

assignments. The remainder are employed in park maintenance and recreation. They generally are on jobs that require less skill than those held by regular government workers.

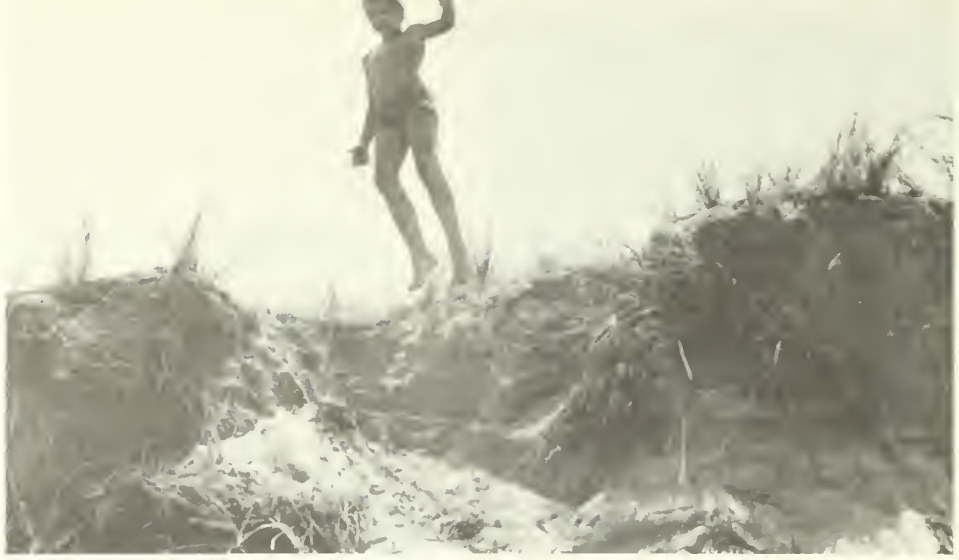
Treatment of parks and recreation as "non-essential"—and implicitly, less demanding—activities is unfortunate. This attitude tends to support the myth of parks and recreation as a "dumping ground" for unskilled workers and mitigates the potential of CETA to provide both meaningful employment and responsive programs in the recreation field.

CETA has been a lifesaver for many park managers. In cities like Boston, it has been successfully used to meet the twin goals of improving the park system and providing training and job opportunities for the unemployed. But unless the federal government begins to assess seriously the potential long-term implications of continued park system reliance on CETA, it may turn out to be a lifesaver that deflates in the middle of a choppy sea.

General Revenue Sharing

General Revenue Sharing is, after CETA, the largest source of federal assistance for local parks and recreation, providing $317 million in 1975-76. The local discretion allowed by the program has led to a wide diversity of uses. In Tacoma (WA), revenue sharing funds support the park department's handicapped program; in Newport (KY), an economically depressed community, GRS and CETA have provided the only federal sources of support for recreation, without which the recreation department might be eliminated; in Kansas City (MO), GRS funds have allowed the parks department to avoid cutbacks. In Detroit (MI), no GRS funds were used directly for recreation, but public officials report that use of GRS for police services freed some local revenues for other municipal services, including recreation.

Every community makes its decision about whether or not to use revenue sharing funds for recreation depending upon local circumstances. Yet when aggregate GRS expenditures are examined, patterns do emerge. The figures collected by the Office of General Revenue Sharing show that GRS is most heavily used for recreation by medium-sized cities (100,000-500,000 population), and by Western communities. In the Northeast, localities spent more on O&M than on capital expenditures, while the reverse holds true for the rest of the country. In general, GRS funds are increasingly used for O&M rather than capital expenditures, especially by cities of over 500,000 population. These findings corroborate trends already noted; i.e., the growing need for operating as opposed to capital funds, especially among larger cities, and the relatively lesser commitment of revenue sharing funds to recreation by the older Northeastern cities presumably due to other higher priority needs.



National Park Service

Lakeshore adventure.

Local Public Works Program

The Local Public Works program, administered by the Economic Development Administration, is a temporary one designed to create jobs, provide fiscal stimulus to the local economy, and repair or construct needed public facilities. Unlike the programs previously discussed, it will not provide ongoing support for recreation. But it has, in the two rounds already funded, pumped a significant number of dollars into park development and construction, and rehabilitation of indoor recreation facilities. According to EDA's January 1978 figures, in Round II (total spending: $3.99 billion), 245 park development projects and 469 recreation facilities projects, with a total price tag of $280 million were undertaken with LPW funds.

If the LPW program is re-funded by Congress, the extent to which parks and recreation will benefit probably depends on how many unfunded economic development and recreation projects communities have sitting on the shelves. In most cases, economic development projects will probably take precedence, but the emphasis on quick start-up time may be to the advantage of the often relatively simpler recreation projects which have been fully designed and then temporarily mothballed due to lack of funds.

Other Federal Programs

In dollar terms, the programs discussed above are certainly the most important, but many other federal programs, more modest in scope, have significant impact on local recreation programs. Just to give a feel for the range of federal involvement, recreation opportunities are provided through the Community Service Administration's National Youth Sports Program and Summer Youth Recreation Program; through HEW's Community Schools Program, Environmental Education program, and programs for the elderly and disadvantaged youths; through the National Endowment for the Arts' Expansion Arts Program; through the Agriculture Department's Special Summer Feeding Program for children; through the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration's Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention program; and through the Youth Conservation Corps, jointly operated by

the Departments of the Interior and Agriculture, which provides work-education experience and environmental education for youths.

Many localities have been exceptionally creative in combining several of these federal programs with available state, local, and private resources to increase recreation opportunities substantially, but communities have often been frustrated in their attempts to package federal programs into a single project because of the different regulations, application requirements, and funding schedules for each. Greater coordination is sorely needed at the federal level to help localities take full advantage of existing programs.

FUTURE PROSPECTS

Despite the array of federal programs supporting local recreation and the magnitude of that support, assistance often is not being directed to areas of critical need. Especially in older, fiscally distressed cities, recreation systems are rapidly deteriorating, facilities are not adequately maintained, and recreation programs are being cut.

Many of these communities cannot take advantage of LWCF for rehabilitation, either because they cannot provide the 50 percent local match or because their states place low priority on rehabilitation projects and fund them infrequently. Nor are CDBG or GRS funds available, because housing, economic development, and social welfare needs take precedence over recreation and there is not enough money to go around. CETA is likely to be used heavily both for maintenance and programs, but it cannot meet the need for major renovation of deteriorated park systems. Several new programs in President Carter's Urban Policy package will, if approved by Congress, be a big step toward helping urban recreation systems.

Urban Park and Recreation Recovery Act

The most important new initiative is the Urban Park and Recreation Recovery Act, designed to assist distressed communities to rehabilitate their run-down park systems. The proposed Administration bill would target $150 million annually to fiscally hard-pressed urban areas to provide close-to-home recreation opportunities where those opportunities have been limited due to lack of local, state, or federal support. The emphasis would be on redesign and restoration of public recreation areas and facilities (both indoor and outdoor) near where people live—neighborhood parks and playgrounds, vest pocket parks, and community centers.

The Department of the Interior would administer the program. It would be separate from, but coordinated with, other federal grant programs including the Land and Water Conservation Fund and Community Development. Aid would be given in the form of challenge grants to local governments. The federal government would provide basic 50 percent matching grants, but states would be encouraged to contribute to project costs by a dollar-for-dollar bonus match for every dollar they contributed.

Thus there could be up to a *75 percent* federal share with a *25 percent* state share. This state incentive provision would encourage states to help their own cities while providing flexibility for local and state governments on the share of project costs that each would bear.

Local participants in the program, even in those cases where federal and state funds might cover the entire capital cost of rehabilitation projects, would be expected to make substantial commitments to ongoing rehabilitation, operation, and maintenance of their systems. To be eligible for participation in the program, communities would have to:

1. Qualify based on the minimum standards for physical and economic distress developed by HUD for its Urban Development Action Grant program
2. Develop recovery plans for the systematic rehabilitation of their park and recreation resources
3. Make commitments to ongoing operation and adequate maintenance of facilities rehabilitated under the program.

Grants would be awarded competitively based on such factors as the degree of deterioration of the park system, the fiscal distress of the locality, the ability of the project to correct deficiencies in neighborhood recreation opportunities, the quality of planning and citizen participation, the degree of coordination with neighborhood and voluntary service organizations, the extent to which a project complements other community development programs, and the degree of support from the state and the private sector in helping to meet the non-federal share of project costs.

The Recovery program is designed to complement existing sources of federal assistance. Community development and revenue sharing funds could be used for the local match, hopefully providing hard-pressed cities the additional impetus they need to pry loose some of those federal funds for recreation projects. Land and Water Conservation Fund grants will still be available for new acquisition and development in outdoor recreation areas.

The Administration bill was transmitted to the House and Senate in May. Consideration of the bill is expected during this session. Other proposals in the Urban Policy message to watch out for are the Labor Intensive Public Works program and the Livable Cities program.

Labor Intensive Public Works Program

The Labor Intensive Public Works program would provide $1 billion per year, for three years, to hire the long-term unemployed, construction workers, youths, and minorities to help state and local governments rehabilitate deteriorating public facilities. Perhaps as much as $100 million per year, or 10 percent of the program could go to restore recreation facilities, based on the experience of the Local Public Works program where 7 percent was used for recreation.

Since park rehabilitation projects often involve skills that are easily taught and labor-intensive, it seems reasonable to predict that more funds may be used for recreation under the new program, which concentrates on rehabilitation rather than construction projects. The Economic Development Administration and the Department of the Interior will work together closely to see that the

Chart 1

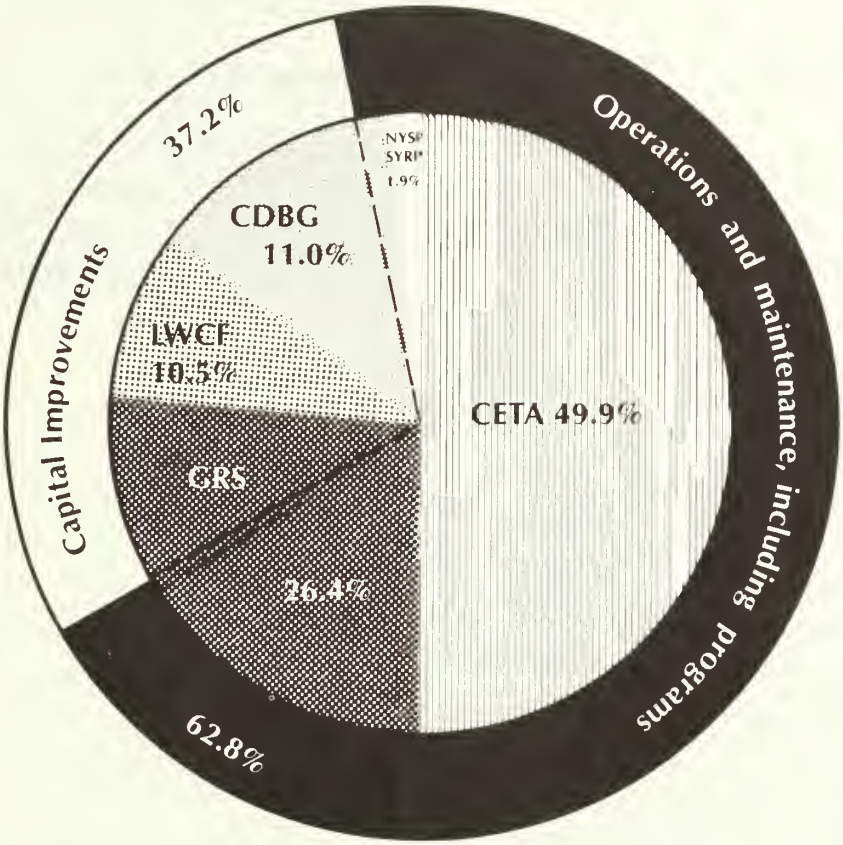
Federal Funds Used for Parks and Recreation by Local Jurisdictions

($ In Millions— Fiscal Year 76)

Federal Program	Total Program Appropriations	Percent of Total Program Dollars Used for Parks and Recreation	Parks and Recreation Use			
			Capital Improvements	Facility Maintenance	Recreation and Cultural Programs	Total Recreation
Land and Water Conservation Fund (FY 76) (HCRS)	$127 0	100%	$127 0 for land acquisition and facility development	None	None	$127 0
Community Development Block Grant (FY 76) (to entitlement cities and urban counties) (HUD)	$1,579 0	8%	$125 6 for land acquisition and facility development	None	$6 5	$132 1
General Revenue Sharing (entitlement period 6 7 1 75-6 30 76) (Treasury)	$4,639 8	7%	$193 8	$122 9 for maintenance and programs		$316 7
Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (FY 76) (DOL)						
Titles II & VI (PSE)	$3,300 0	12% estimated	None	$400 estimated for maintenance and programs		$400 estimated
Title III (SPEDY)	$595 0	34% estimated	None	$200 estimated for maintenance and programs		$200 estimated
National Youth Sports Program (FY 76) (CSA)	$6 0	100%	None	None	$6 0	$6 0
Summer Youth Recreation Program (FY 76) (CSA)	$17 0	100%	None	None	$17 0	$17 0
TOTAL	$10,263.8		$446.4	$764.4		$1,198.8

Estimated Total Park and Recreation Expenditures by Cities and Counties in Fiscal Year 76—$3379.0 million

Local Park and Recreation Use of Six Major Grant Programs, Fiscal Year 76



Total federal dollars spent on local parks and recreation—$1.2 billion*

LWCF— Land and Water Conservation Fund
CDBG— Community Development Block Grant
GRS— General Revenue Sharing
CETA— Comprehensive Employment and Training Program
NYSP— National Youth Sports Program
SYRP— Summer Youth Recreation Program

*This figure is based on estimates contained in Chart 1
These six programs are the major sources of park and recreation funding identified in this study. Other agencies, such as the Economic Development Administration and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, supply substantial amounts of public works, health, social service and educational funding that have secondary recreational benefits.

Labor Intensive Public Works program and the Park and Recreation Recovery program, within the limits set by the differing goals of the two programs, are used effectively in concert at the local level.

Livable Cities

The Livable Cities program, to be administered by the Department of Housing and Urban Development, would provide up to $20 million each year to support community and neighborhood-based arts programs. Cities, states, neighborhood and other nonprofit groups can all apply, as long as their projects are consistent with a locality's Community Development and Neighborhood Preservation and Revitalization Plans. Grants can be used to plan and design cultural, historic, and artistic projects to improve the urban environment, including urban open space.

These programs are only a beginning. Many of the problems of urban recreation still need to be addressed, and many federal agencies could improve the impacts of their programs on urban recreation without compromising other program objectives. But the federal government's recognition—by Congress in mandating the National Urban Recreation Study and by the President, in his Urban Policy proposals—that it has a role to play in urban recreation is a significant step. That role, now in its infant stages, will evolve over the coming years.

Judith S. Benedict, an Outdoor Recreation Planner at the Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, prepared the financing section of the National Urban Recreation Study.

Since this article was prepared, the House has passed the Urban Park and Recreation Recovery Act as part of the National Parks and Recreation Act of 1978 (HR 12536). The House version of the bill differs from the Administration bill in two major respects: 1. It eliminates the use of Urban Development Action Grant criteria to help target funds; 2. It reduces the funding authorization for fiscal year '79 to $50 million.

Conclusion

by Ira J. Hutchison

John Muir, one of the patron saints of the National Park Service said it as well as anyone, "When we try to pick out anything by itself, we find it hitched to everything in the universe."

The nation's parks and recreation programs at every level are hitched together in many complex ways. Yet there are still those who are so preoccupied with boundaries, jurisdictions, and assigned responsibilities that they ignore basic needs that are going unmet in our society.

The walls we erect to protect our "turf" are the same walls that block our vision and limit our mobility. In seeking protection, we may find imprisonment.

More often than not, the restrictions we have imposed upon ourselves are limitations of perception and of purpose. When we lower our sights, we lower our expectations and our standards as well. When we accept a limit on our activities, we accept a limit on our responsibilities as well. Worst of all, we create in ourselves the inability to recognize a need out of the context of our jurisdiction and a similar inability to recognize opportunities to serve the people of America.

For example, we may have some difficulty in realizing that the Holly Forest on Sandy Hook in the Gateway National Recreation Area (NY, NJ) is as precious and unique a natural resource as are the massive Redwood Groves in Redwood National Park (CA).

Broadening Our Outlook

If we look without preconceptions, we shall see that the historic sites within Gateway have as much significance to the people of the New York City area—and to the nation as a whole—as do the most famous of our national historic sites.

Those of us who work each day to try to meet the mandate found in the 1916 National Park Service enabling act—to preserve the parks while helping people to enjoy them—must recognize that our responsibilities are not limited by space or geography. So must our colleagues who work on state and local park levels.

The challenge to preserve urban park resources is no less—and probably much greater—than are the challenges facing parks more distant from urban population centers.

Those challenges are delineated in the National Urban Recreation Study which speaks very clearly to the need for recreational opportunities close to home. "Home" for more than 70 percent of all Americans is in an urban area.

Just as there is need to provide opportunities for recreation in urban areas, so also is there a need to help people in urban areas to protect what they value—facilities which add extra dimensions to their lives.

Very often areas that should be protected for their recreational potential also should be protected for their historical significance. They are places whose history and development ties this generation to those that came before and those that will come next.

Perhaps the easiest part of our challenge is to identify areas suitable for recreational development. It is much more difficult and requires more imagination to institute the planning and development processes that can do the job of protecting those areas.

Unfortunately, a great many opportunities for the development of our urban recreational potential have been lost because someone lacked the nerve, the imagination, or both, to see the opportunities and to seize them. As a result, opportunities have been buried, sometimes literally, by the onrush of urban development.

Need For Cooperation

While I believe that the National Park Service's mandate clearly places it in the thick of urban park development activities, I do not believe this mandate should be interpreted as a *carte blanche* to insert the Service into areas that quite clearly are in the province of state and local park authorities.

As organizations and as individuals, none of us can afford to go it alone if we are genuinely concerned with serving the public. The independent manager who consults no one but his conscience is fast becoming an endangered species, one we will gladly help to achieve extinction.

In urban areas especially, park and recreation agencies must operate in the completely cooperative mode, and we must weave ourselves very tightly into the institutional fabric of the city. In so doing, we shall bear our share of the responsibility for the health and well-being of urban inhabitants.

Urban conservation demands strong commitment and cooperative activity.

In many areas, the demand for recreation and park services easily outstrips the supply of available resources. The temptation in that circumstance is to permit an overloading of the facilities.

But just as we determined years ago that overflow campgrounds were detrimental to the basic good health of a park, so also must we be sure that overflow in an urban area does not do permanent damage to the resource we are pledged to protect.

In all aspects of our management, we should stress those things that we can do well. The National Park Service, for example, can make a real contribution in urban areas in the development of environmental education programs—we have extensive experience in that field. On the other hand, the Service has had little to do with organized games and athletics.

Increased Sensitivity

Park and recreation managers must strive, too, to help promote, among all who use urban park facilities or who are in any way exposed to them, an improved understanding of humanity.

We are in an urban bind precisely because society did not understand its

National Park Service

own ability to change the environment. If we are to reverse this trend so that our environment improves rather than deteriorates, we must help all to understand that everything we do contributes—for good or for ill—to the quality of the inheritance we give our children and grandchildren.

This, too, can be done best working in concert with many other agencies—local park districts, schools, social service organizations, and others who serve youth, senior citizens, and special populations such as the handicapped.

Transcending Organizational Conflict

Whenever and wherever different organizations are working at different levels with the same goals and aspirations, there is potential for conflict. A candid analysis would turn up some conflicts, competition, and dispute about who is doing what and who should be doing what in the urban environment.

These conflicts simply do not make sense. If we only will stop for just a moment to look at the scope of human need, it becomes obvious, painfully obvious, that there is more than enough challenge to go around.

There are two ways to approach this problem. First, we can seek an effective division of labor. Where possible, we can establish responsibility and accountability in specific terms where such clear definitions are needed.

But there are also situations where such definitions are too rigid and hamper effectiveness. Then we can deliberately seek what is sometimes called "role blurring" so that the job gets done without much concern for who does it and, equally important, for who gets the credit.

We must all be seeking to do those things we do best without reference to institutional prerogatives. We must be tied together by a human service base that transcends our organizational ties.

It is my hope that as skills and experience in the urban park and recreation field are developed and improved, truly effective systems and procedures will be available to those seeking to meet needs for park and recreation space. The more options we have, the better the job can be tailored to fit the need.

In the light of recent developments, we face rapidly escalating problems in funding state and local parks. While this may lead to increased demand for federal support, it is important that that support come in a variety of options and that we do not automatically assign a high priority to the concept of direct federal management.

There are urban areas that meet all the criteria for national park status. These should have NPS protection and management. But for many other areas, a mix of support and management that involves government at all levels and a healthy input from the private sector is the best way to get the job done.

In this special issue of TRENDS, you have explored some of the ways that a mix of federal, state, and private initiatives can meet urban park and recreation needs.

The challenge we face is so formidable that success will come only to those armed with knowledge, spurred by concern , and steeled by a total commitment to help the American people find the joys and comforts parks and recreation can bring.

Ira J. Hutchison is Deputy Director of the National Park Service. Prior to this appointment, he has been Superintendent of Gateway National Recreation Area and National Capital Region East. Before coming to the National Park Service, Mr. Hutchison served as Assistant to the President of National Recreation and Park Association and was responsible for the association's urban recreation programs.

Who Can You Turn To?

The Editors of TRENDS hope the following bibliography will be of help to park and recreation agencies seeking to improve their service to urban areas.

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